

IMPACT OF INSTITUTIONAL GENDER EQUITY STRATEGIES ON
GENDER PARITY FOR WOMEN IN SENIOR-LEVEL ADMINISTRATION
AT FLORIDA PUBLIC COMMUNITY COLLEGES

By

GLORIA DENISE PICKAR

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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By

Gloria Denise Pickar

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The purpose of this study was to identify gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges, as mandated in the 1992 Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (Florida Statutes, section 240.3355). During phase 1, 10 experts validated 30 institutional strategies identified in the literature. Phase 2 examined how each strategy had influenced gender parity for senior-level women administrators.

Administrative women at 28 public community colleges in Florida were surveyed ($N = 1,073$; response rate = 63%) for their assessment of the level of implementation of each strategy. The colleges were rank ordered and divided into high, medium, and low gender equity achievement groups by calculating the percentage of women occupying senior-level administrative positions. Analysis of variance was used to compare the mean scores of the women's assessments with

the gender equity achievement rate of the respective colleges. Significant differences at the .05 level were found for nine strategies. Tukey's Studentized Range Test was used post hoc to determine which of the group means differed significantly at the .05 level.

The results suggested four strategies are effective components of an overall plan to achieve gender parity for community college senior-level administrative women. They are setting and publicizing gender equity goals, evaluating hiring managers against achievement of these goals, targeted recruitment, and establishing a commission on women's status. Correcting hiring and salary inequities, and publicizing gender equity data seem to be important influencers for achieving gender parity. Salary disparity was a major concern addressed by the respondents.

Data suggested that deficit strategies are helpful for improving the status of women from low- to mid-level, but they do not support achievement of gender parity. Significant deficit strategies are mentoring, administrative internships, acting positions, and financial support for credentialing. The latter strategy evidenced an inverse effect on gender parity; possibly because most high gender equity achieving institutions likely have adequate numbers of women candidates with earned doctorates. Community colleges with low gender equity achievement may find deficit strategies helpful as part of their overall plan, but they are not recommended as the primary focus.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

As colleges and universities strive to meet society's increasing educational demands within the context of shrinking fiscal resources, the need for qualified administrators is obvious. However, individuals who achieve leadership positions in these institutions are predominately men, suggesting that the talent pool is only partially tapped. Indeed, there is a wealth of data showing that women do not have parity with men in higher education administrative positions (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1993a; Touchton & Davis, 1991). In addition to being underrepresented and underpaid, women overall achieve lower positional status and rank (Bogart, 1989). Nationwide, the large majority of senior-level administrative and tenured faculty positions in higher education are held by men. Women are disproportionately clustered in lower level, nonline staff, and nontenured positions (Bogart, 1989; Ottinger & Sikula, 1993; Sandler & Hall, 1986; Touchton & Davis, 1991).

Florida parallels the nation when it comes to the status of administrative women in public community colleges. The Florida Division of Community Colleges (FL DCC) documented that while women were the majority of the student body and earned the greatest number of degrees, female faculty continued to be in the minority on their campuses, and their representation declined slightly from 1992 to 1994 (FL DCC, 1993, 1994b, 1995b). Further, women represented 38% of combined full-time senior-level and instructional

administrative positions in 1994 (FL DCC, 1995b), and 25% of full-time senior-level only positions (FL DCC, 1996). Men were almost 10 times more likely than women to hold the position of president or chief executive officer (CEO) at Florida community colleges (FL DCC, 1995b).

The literature indicates that gender parity for women in higher education administration is improving, but a considerable gap still exists in terms of numbers, compensation, and positional level of men and women (Touchton & Davis, 1991). The data document that the majority of the higher education student body are women, while the majority of the faculty who teach them and the majority of the administrators who lead their institutions are men. However, as the following data suggest, there are adequate numbers of qualified women prepared to move into administrative positions.

Nationally, women have comprised the majority of the undergraduate student body since 1979 and the majority of graduate school enrollments since 1990 (NCES, 1993a). Women also represented the majority of the student body in Florida public community colleges. In 1993 and 1994, women constituted 59% of the Florida public community college unduplicated headcount (FL DCC, 1994b, 1995b).

Since 1988, women have earned more degrees per year than men. They have earned the majority of associate's degrees since 1978, the majority of bachelor's degrees since 1982, and the majority of master's degrees since 1986 (NCES, 1993a). The American Council on Education (ACE, 1990a) projected that women will earn 46% of the doctorates by 1998 with equal representation among men and women expected by the turn of the century.

In 1992, women constituted 37% of higher education faculty and instructional staff. The proportion of female faculty increased as rank decreased. Women were the minority in every rank except the lowest level rank of lecturer (NCES, 1994). In public two-year colleges, women represented 42% of all faculty and instructional staff in 1992 (NCES, 1994). Among community college faculty on 9- or 10-month contracts (the most common full-time faculty contract in the community college) women accounted for 37% of the total in 1989 (NCES, 1993a). In Florida public community colleges from 1991 to 1994, women consistently represented 47% of full-time faculty on 9- or 10-month contracts (FL DCC, 1992, 1993, 1994b). This percentage increased slightly to 48% by 1995 (FL DCC, 1995b). They represented 45% of tenured or continuing contract faculty in 1994 (FL DCC, 1995c).

Women represented 39% of the total executive, administrative, and management (EAM) higher education positions and 12% of the college and university presidents in 1989 (NCES, 1993a). By 1995, women attained 16% of the presidencies (ACE, 1995). In public two-year colleges, women constituted 38% of the EAM positions in 1991 (NCES, 1994) and 15% of the presidencies by 1995 (ACE, 1995). In Florida public community colleges in 1994, women represented 38% of all full-time EAM positions (FL DCC, 1995b), 25% of full-time senior-level EAM positions, and 11% of the presidencies (FL DCC, 1996).

Within higher education administration, women are clustered in lower-level staff positions rather than line positions and in support rather than academic leadership positions (Moore, 1983, 1984, 1988; Sandler & Hall, 1986; Touchton & Davis, 1991). Vaughan (1990) observed that women in higher

education administration are disadvantaged because the route to senior-level administration is most frequently by way of academic line (instructional dean) positions. Touchton and Davis (1991) reported that the proportion of female higher education administrators increased as the level of the position decreased.

Salary disparities also exist for male and female faculty and administrators in higher education and the data indicate that improvement has been marginal. In 1993, female faculty averaged lower full-time salaries than men at all ranks and in all types of institutions (NCES, 1993c). Further, the gap between these salaries has widened rather than narrowed. In 1982, women's salaries averaged 81.4% of men's salaries for all ranks of 9- and 10-month contract faculty (NCES, 1993b). By 1993, women's average salaries declined to 79.9% of men's average salaries (NCES, 1993c). During the decade 1983-1993, average faculty salaries for women at public two-year colleges remained at 90% of comparable salaries for men with a dip to 84% in 1991 (NCES, 1993c). In Florida in 1994, full-time female faculty in community colleges earned an average of 92% of the salaries of comparable male faculty (FL DCC, 1995c).

The College and University Personnel Association (CUPA, 1995a) reported that in 1994-95 in most major administrative positions, women had smaller median salaries than their male counterparts at similar institutions. At two-year colleges in 1994-95, median salaries of female senior-level administrators were less than those of men in every comparable chief administrative position (CUPA, 1995a). For example, comparing men and women in executive vice president positions with equivalent median years of experience (7.5 years), CUPA (1995a) reported that the median salary for women was 70% of the median salary for

men. CUPA (1996) data for 1995-96 indicated that comparable median salaries for women senior-level administrators in community colleges exceeded men's for three positions. These positions were chief academic officer, chief student affairs officer, and dean of business. In Florida public community colleges in 1994, the average female EAM administrator earned 95% of her male counterpart (FL DCC, 1994a).

In a follow-up report to their 1989 "new agenda" for promoting women in higher education, Shavlik and Touchton (1992) again evaluated the status of women in higher education.

Now, in what the media calls the "Year of the Woman," many of the issues addressed in The New Agenda remain of critical concern on campus, where it is not yet the year of the woman. . . . Even with the rise in the numbers of female presidents, faculty, students, and administrators, we are weary of the slow progress, the continuing need to recount the lack of progress, and the dearth of ideas about how to change. (p. 48)

States have begun to address gender inequity in higher education administration. For example, Texas and Florida implemented policies to improve gender parity for professional women in higher education. The problem was judged severe enough in these states for the legislatures to mandate that higher education institutions take corrective action to accelerate change.

The Texas Legislature in 1991 adopted a resolution (Zaffirini--Increased Women Representation at Colleges, 1991) which acknowledged that women were underrepresented in all ranks of tenure-line faculty, in senior-level administration, in presidencies, and as members of governing boards in Texas public institutions of higher education. Subsequently, the Texas Council for Women in Higher Education (1991) studied the gender equity reforms of other higher education institutions and found success in every instance in which a well

constructed and implemented institutional plan was proactively employed. The Council recommended a set of gender equity goals and strategies for Texas higher education institutions to adopt.

On November 20, 1991, then Florida Commissioner of Education Betty Castor held the first Roundtable for Women in Educational Leadership in Florida. The purposes of the Roundtable were to provide a forum for discussing the status of women in education in Florida and to develop strategies to expand opportunities for women to advance to key leadership roles. Participants acknowledged that in Florida's State University System, women held 33% of EAM positions in 1989, up from 28% in 1985. In the community college system, they noted that women held 36% of these positions, up from 31% in 1986. Commissioner Castor summarized the gender equity situation in Florida.

These statistics, while showing modest improvement at each level of education, indicate that women are underrepresented in educational leadership positions. . . . I believe it is time to demand accountability among our education institutions in the hiring, promotion, and compensation of qualified women. We are implementing comprehensive accountability systems at all levels of Florida education, in which we are setting goals, measuring performance, and disclosing outcomes publicly. (Regional Roundtable for Women in Educational Leadership, 1991, p. 4)

In the 1992 legislative session following the Roundtable, the Florida Legislature recognized the underrepresentation and salary disparity of women in higher education EAM positions, especially at the senior-level. In order to rectify this situation, the Florida Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) (Appendix A) was enacted. A comparable section of the statute applied to the state university system (State University System Equity Accountability Program Act, 1992).

The Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) specified that beginning May 1, 1993, each Florida public community college would include in its annual equity update a plan for increasing the number of women in senior-level administrative positions. The plans were required to include specific measurable goals, objectives, and strategies for accomplishing the goals within specified time periods. For existing positions the colleges would report the job title, gender, ethnicity, appointment status, comparative salary, and number of positions within a particular job title. For vacant positions, the gender and ethnic composition of the selection committee and the steps to be taken to develop a diverse pool of candidates were the only guidelines specified. The colleges were responsible for designing and implementing specific gender equity strategies.

Statement of the Problem

In Florida, the higher education institutions have been required to improve gender equity in senior-level administrative positions. Each institution must develop and implement its own strategies. The literature is replete with recommended strategies to advance women in higher education administration (Bogart, 1984, 1989; Gillett-Karam, Roueche, & Roueche, 1991; Green, 1988; Hensel, 1991; Moore, 1988; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992; Shavlik, Touchton, & Pearson, 1989). It would be advantageous to identify those gender equity strategies that would best achieve Florida's goal of gender parity for women in senior-level administration at the public community colleges.

Most research and writing about gender equity in higher education administration has focused on career path analysis and the responsibility of women for their own career advancement. In contrast, leaders and legislators in Florida have focused on the obligation of institutions of higher education to take action to improve the status of professional women. At this time an action plan to achieve gender parity for women has not been recommended for adaptation by Florida's public community colleges. Although there is a growing body of literature on strategies judged effective for promoting gender equity in higher education administration, it has not been applied to public community colleges in Florida.

The community college agenda to advance women has been set by the Florida legislature and it is compelling. There is a need to determine what gender equity strategies are most effective for advancing women to senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify institutional gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions.

1. What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration?
2. Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida?

3. Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges?

Glossary of Terms

The following terms were operationally defined for the purposes of this study.

1. Executive, administrative, and management (EAM) is defined by the U.S. Department of Education to include all persons in postsecondary institutions whose assignments require primary and major responsibility for management of the institution, or a customarily recognized department or subdivision thereof.

2. Gender equity is the quality of fairness and impartiality which does not discriminate by gender and signifies equal employment opportunity and access for both women and men.

3. Gender equity strategies are a series of institutional activities or methods designed to facilitate or implement gender equity goals.

4. Gender parity refers to equality in the employment status of women and men, including equal representation by position and rank, and comparable salary for comparable work and rank.

5. Glass ceiling refers to an invisible, artificial barrier that prevents qualified individuals from advancing within their organization and reaching their full potential.

6. Senior-level executive, administrative, and management includes persons with institution-wide authority with titles such as chancellor, president, vice president, provost, or dean (providing there is no level of authority between the dean and chief educational officer). In the Florida State Community College System, classification 01 EAM positions meet this definition.

7. Status of women refers to the representation (numbers), compensation (salary), and positional level of women.

Delimitations and Limitations

The following delimitations and limitations of the study were specified.

Delimitations

1. The study was limited to the Florida public community colleges (Appendix B).
2. The study was limited to full-time administrators employed Spring semester 1995-96 at Florida public community colleges, excluding those on leave, temporary assignment, or grant funding.
3. The study was limited to the most recent data collected and reported in the Florida Division of Community Colleges Annual Personnel Reports (Fall semester 1994-95).
4. The study was limited to institutional gender equity strategies related to the advancement of senior-level executive, administrative, and managerial women.
5. Minority women were not differentiated.

Limitations

1. The results of this study should not be generalized beyond the Florida public community colleges.
2. The community college's record of achievement of gender parity for women may have been limited by the college's interpretation and classification of administrative positions.

Significance of the Study

Although gains have been made and community college women are somewhat better represented than university women, women overall comprise a large pool of untapped senior leadership talent. The limited role and influence of professional women in higher education signifies a loss of academic and leadership expertise to colleges, universities, and society. Shavlik et al. (1989) noted:

Our global society is facing problems of potentially catastrophic proportions. We need the best and brightest minds to attend to these problems. Women constitute half of the human resources available. They have the potential of providing at least half of the answers. (p. 444)

Sandler and Hall (1986) observed that the lower status of female faculty and administrators implies that women are not quite first-class citizens in the academic community. They described how the subtle social and professional barriers to women's advancement and comparable compensation devalue women. Further, Bogart (1989) noted that the underrepresentation and lowered status of professional academic women mean all students, male and female, have decreased opportunities to interact and identify with women leaders and professional role models.

On a broader perspective, the lack of equity for women in higher education administration based on their individual merits points to at least two dilemmas for higher education leaders. First, they are attempting to teach but not practice the social values of justice and equality. Second, they are faced with preparing women leaders but not equally employing or promoting them. Considering the importance of these agendas to colleges and universities, Moore (1995) recommended that it is time for institutions to take responsibility for designing a better future for women in administration, for higher education, and for society. Ottinger and Sikula (1993) wrote an American Council on Education 1993 research brief on women in higher education. They demonstrated the necessity of increasing the number of women in administrative positions. They concluded that women are interested in, qualified for, and needed in higher education leadership, but their share of the positions and economic rewards has remained unattained.

Although female students and degree holders now represent the majority in higher education, the employment status of professional women in academe continues to remain below men's, especially among senior-level administrators. Women in higher education administration seem to experience the same transparent barrier often referred to as the glass ceiling faced by corporate women (Ottinger & Sikula, 1993). This is somewhat more surprising in the educational setting than in the corporate one, since professional corporate women are relative newcomers. A salient factor that lends substance to the glass ceiling perception is the limited number of women in the top positions in colleges and universities. This is further reinforced by the types of institutions where women

most often are employed as presidents and chief officers (private and small), as well as the lower median salaries they earn compared with men. A 1993 American Council on Education survey of 510 senior administrators revealed that 67% were satisfied with the number of women student leaders and scholars, but only 33% were satisfied with the representation of women among senior faculty members, senior administrators, and boards of trustees (Evangelauf, 1993).

This study helps to clarify the gender equity strategies evident in the literature that are recognized as effective for improving the status of women administrators. The results of this study can help Florida public community college leaders design and evaluate gender equity plans to improve gender parity for female senior-level administrators as specified in the Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992). The study can also provide insightful information for boards, administrators, and personnel managers seeking to promote and hire senior-level female administrators in Florida public community colleges. Further, professional women aspiring to community college employment may find the results helpful for examining the profile of institutions that support gender equity in hiring and promotion.

Overview of the Remainder of the Study

A review of the related literature is presented in chapter 2. Chapter 3 details the research methodology. The design, selection of subjects, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and methods of data analysis are described. The purpose of chapter 4 is to report on the findings and analyze the

results of the study. A summary, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future study are discussed in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify institutional gender equity strategies that have been most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions.

1. What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration?
2. Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida?
3. Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges?

The following review of the literature summarizes research and scholarly reports which describe specific institutional gender equity strategies to improve gender parity for women in higher education administration. An overview of related issues is presented in this chapter as a background. These issues include a description of the most recent status of women in higher education and the

barriers which interfere with women's achieving senior-level administrative positions.

Status of Women in Higher Education

In the past 25 years, there has been considerable growth in the participation of women students in higher education. There has not been comparable growth for women faculty or administrators. Since 1990 women have represented the majority of both graduate and undergraduate enrollments (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1993a). They have earned the majority of the associate's, bachelor's, and master's degrees since 1986 (NCES, 1993a). However, they have not achieved parity with men as doctoral and first professional (law, medicine, dentistry, etc.) students and graduates, nor as faculty and higher education administrators (Knopp, 1995).

Although there has been progress, many writers have documented that women faculty and administrators in higher education have continued to be underrepresented, underpaid, and lower in rank than men (Bernstein, 1984; Gillett-Karam et al., 1991; Kaplan, Secor, & Tinsley, 1984; Kelly & Slaughter, 1990; Knopp, 1995; Moore, 1983; Moore & Sagaria, 1990; Rigaux, 1995; Shavlik et al., 1989; Simeone, 1987; Swoboda, 1993; Touchton & Davis, 1991). Gains have been steady but minimal since the federal affirmative action legislation enacted during the 1970s (Touchton & Davis, 1991). The hiring and promotion of women faculty and administrators have not been comparable to the enrollments of women students (Knopp, 1995; Sandler & Hall, 1986; Touchton & Davis, 1991). Women who have occupied faculty and administrative positions

have earned lower average salaries than men in the same positions (NCES, 1993c; Shavlik et al., 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992; Touchton & Davis, 1991). Further, women have been disproportionately clustered in lower-level, nonline, nontenured, and part-time positions (Bogart, 1989; Ottinger & Sikula, 1993; Sandler & Hall, 1986; Touchton & Davis, (1991). They also have tended to remain concentrated in certain career tracks, like student affairs, making subsequent career mobility more difficult (Moore, 1988).

Hensel (1991) considered the status of professional women in higher education as indicative of costly gender discrimination.

It is costly in a personal sense for those women who successfully completed doctoral degrees only to find that they could not secure employment in their chosen field. It is costly to students who cannot avail themselves of the perspectives represented by the women who were not hired. It is costly for the faculty women already hired, because they remain in a minority position, with all the psychological stresses that can be attributed to underrepresentation. Finally, it is costly to institutions who bear the expense of discrimination law suits, which have been estimated to be in the hundreds of millions of dollars. (p. 11)

The underrepresentation of women, salary inequity compared to men in comparable positions, and lower rank have been the impetus for some states to implement policy targeted at achieving gender equity (Regional Roundtable for Women in Educational Leadership, 1991). For example, Florida enacted the State University System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) and the Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) (Appendix A). These two policies have mandated that each Florida public state university and community college develop an annual equity accountability plan beginning May 1993. Components of these laws included policies to increase the number of

women and minorities in senior-level administrative and tenured or continuing contract faculty positions. *Slog*

Representation of Professional Women

Touchton and Davis (1991) reported that women in 1989 were underrepresented, were less likely to be tenured, and had lower average salaries than men at all professional levels of higher education: chief executive officer (CEO), administrator, and faculty. While more women became administrators by 1995, they remained the minority in middle and top policy-making roles (Knopp, 1995). Vaughan (1990) identified the academic dean (or vice president) position as the most common pathway to the community college presidency. However, the academic dean or vice president position was filled by women only 25% of the time in 1995 (College and University Personnel Association [CUPA], 1995a). Further, female faculty were still more likely in 1995 to have part-time, lower ranking, nontenured jobs, and lower salaries than their male peers (Knopp, 1995). They were also concentrated in fields that traditionally have been affiliated most often with women, such as nursing and education (Knopp, 1995).

✓ Women presidents

Women have made steady progress in achievement of leadership positions throughout higher education institutions, but they continue to hold a small percentage of the presidencies (Rigaux, 1995). During 1995, women accounted for 16% or 453 of the total CEOs at public and private higher education institutions; this was up from 6% two decades ago (Table 2-1) (American Council on Education [ACE], 1995). In 1995, women held 15% of public community college presidencies (138 of 900 total), which was a 10-fold increase since 1975

when 11 women headed community colleges (ACE, 1995). They held 78 of 556 or 14% of the CEO positions at public four-year colleges and universities and 15% of these positions at private institutions (ACE, 1995). ^{540 p}

Table 2-1

Number (n) and Percentage of Female Presidents/CEOs, 1975-1995

Institution Type	1975 (n)	1995 (n)
Private	132	237
4-Year	98	199
2-Year	34	38
Public	16	216
4-Year	5	78
2-Year	11	138
Total Women	148	453
Total Institutions	2500	2903
Percentage	6%	16%

Source: ACE, Office of Women in Higher Education, 1995

Considering women presidents as a total group, they were most likely to be found in 1995 in small private four-year colleges. Of all female presidents, three in five (61%) were in four-year institutions, and two in five (39%) were in two-year or community colleges. Further, women presidents were slightly more likely to head private colleges (52%) than public. However, the growth of female CEOs of public institutions has been considerable. Women presidents at public colleges increased from 16 to 216 between 1975 and 1995, increasing their

representation to 48% of all female presidents (Table 2-1) (ACE, 1995). Women presidents were much more likely to preside over small colleges than large universities in 1995. Among female college and university CEOs, 71% were at institutions with full-time enrollments of less than 3,000 students, 22% were at institutions with enrollments between 3,000 and 10,000, and 7% at colleges with enrollments over 10,000 (ACE, 1995). Overall, private two-year institutions seemed to offer the best opportunity for women presidents in 1995, as they held 27% of the 143 leadership posts in these institutions (ACE, 1995; Rigaux, 1995).

Women administrators

Similarly, women were more likely to hold senior-level administrative positions (dean, vice president, and provost) in private institutions than public institutions. In 1989, women held 39% of all full-time executive, administrative, and management (EAM) positions in all higher education institutions. They represented 34% of these positions in public institutions and 45% in private institutions (NCES, 1993a). By 1995, they held almost one-half of all administrative posts in external affairs (48%) and student services (47%) (CUPA, 1995a). They also occupied 35% of the administrative jobs with college-wide responsibilities and 27% of the executive posts, including executive vice presidents, assistants to CEOs, and CEOs (CUPA, 1995a).

✓ Although women have continued to be significantly outnumbered by men in all senior-level or chief administrative positions, they have made progress in recent years. "I think the glass ceiling is at least cracking; we're seeing large shaking if not crashes," said Anne L. Bryant, executive director of the American Association of University Women (Rigaux, 1995, p. 7). Between 1988 and 1995,

the percentage of women chief administrators increased in all areas; however, their numbers and proportions remained higher in student affairs and development than academic or administrative affairs (CUPA, 1988, 1995a). They represented approximately 30% of the chief positions in student affairs and development, 25% in academic affairs, and less than 15% in financial and administrative affairs by 1995 (Table 2-2). They held 14% of CEO positions, as reported in the 1994-95 College and University Personnel Association Administrative Compensation Survey (CUPA, 1995a). This is compared to 16% women CEO positions in 1995 reported by ACE (1995).

Table 2-2

Percentage of Chief Administrative Positions Held by Women,
1987-88 and 1994-95

Administrative Post	1987-88	1994-95
Chief Student Affairs Officer	25%	31%
Chief Development Officer	20%	29%
Chief Academic Officer	17%	25%
Chief Executive Officer	10%	14%
Chief Business Officer	10%	13%

Source: CUPA, 1988, 1995a.

Sandler and Hall (1986) reported that on average in 1983, each college and university employed the equivalent of 1.1 senior administrative women (at the level of dean or above). They noted that women at the top were few and isolated. In two studies conducted in 1981 and 1985 at the Center for the Study

of Higher Education at the Pennsylvania State University, Moore (1988) surveyed 1,400 administrators at four-year colleges and universities and 1,200 administrators at two-year colleges. The top three administrative positions identified for women in the four-year sample were librarian, registrar, and director of financial aid. The top three positions for men were president (or chancellor), chief business officer, and registrar. The most common positions for women in the two-year sample were head librarian, chief of student affairs, and director of learning resources. However, they were the majority only in the position of head librarian. Furthermore, more than one-half of the women academic deans represented nursing, home economics, arts and sciences, and continuing education. There were no women deans in engineering, law, medicine, business, or physical education in the sample.

Sandler and Hall reported in 1986 that it was uncommon for women to hold department chairmanships and rare for them to become academic deans. In the CUPA (1995a) administrative survey, women represented 15% of the deans of business, 14% of the deans of law, and 4% of the deans of engineering. One female dean of medicine was recognized of 50 total institutions reporting (CUPA, 1995a). Further, in 1988 and 1995, women held the majority of the senior positions in academic administration only in the areas of deans of nursing (97%) and deans of home economics (77%) (CUPA, 1988, 1995a). By 1995, they gained the majority for one additional dean classification; 58% of the deans of health-related professions were women (CUPA, 1995a).

As the level of administration in higher education decreases, the percentage of women increases within the institution. For example, in the

admissions offices in 1987, women represented 28% of the directors, 50% of the associate directors, and 66% of the assistant directors (CUPA, 1988). With improvement and title changes noted, the trend continued through 1995. Just over one-third (35%) of the chief admissions officers were women, compared to 57% of the associate directors and 62% of the admissions counselors (CUPA, 1995a).

Women faculty

Women have had a greater presence in postsecondary education faculties in recent years. However, they have continued to be concentrated in the lower ranks, less likely to hold tenure or continuing contract, and more likely to be appointed part time (Knopp, 1995; Ottinger & Sikula, 1993). In 1992, 41% of all female faculty were employed part time, compared to 29% for male faculty (NCES, 1995b). Although the number of women full-time faculty increased between 1975 and 1985, the proportion of women remained about the same, at 25% (Touchton & Davis, 1991). By 1987, the proportion of women faculty grew to 27% of all full-time regular faculty: 21% in public research universities; 19% in private research universities; and 38% at public two-year colleges (NCES, 1993a). In 1991, they represented 32% of all regular full-time faculty (NCES, 1993a), and grew to 33% by 1992 (NCES, 1994). Including both full-time and part-time faculty, 36% were women in 1992 (NCES, 1995b), up from 32% in 1987 (NCES, 1993a).

Women faculty followed the same trend as women in administration: the lower the level or rank, the greater the proportion of women. As instructional faculty, women have been advancing, but their promotions have come more

slowly and in lower increments than their male counterparts' (Table 2-3). The greatest increases for women came within the lowest rank of lecturer: from 24% in 1973 to 50% in 1992 (NCES, 1993a, 1995b). The percentage of women who were full professors rose at a slower rate over the 18 years from 1973 to 1992, from 10% to 18% (NCES, 1993a, 1995b).

Table 2-3

Instructional Faculty by Gender and Rank, 1992

Rank	% Women	% Men
Full Professor	18%	82%
Associate Professor	29%	71%
Assistant Professor	43%	57%
Instructor	47%	53%
Lecturer	50%	50%

Source: NCES, 1995b.

The proportion of men faculty with tenure remained the same from 1981 to 1992, at 70%. During the same years, the proportion of women faculty with tenure was significantly less and declined slightly from 50% to 49% (NCES, 1993a). By 1995, tenure status had improved for men and declined further for women with 72% of all male faculty tenured compared to 48% of all female faculty (American Association of University Professors [AAUP], 1995).

The clustering of women in lower-ranked faculty positions also indicated that they were more likely to be without tenure and part time, since rank,

full/part-time status, and tenure have been closely associated. In 1992, 88% of the faculty with the academic rank of professor were employed full time, while 67% of instructors and 72% of lecturers were employed part time (NCES, 1994). In 1991, 96% of all professors were tenured, 81% of associate professors, 18% of assistant professors, 20% of instructors, and 7% of lecturers (NCES, 1993a).

With some exceptions, female faculty also remained clustered by discipline and work associated with women (Knopp, 1995). In nursing 98% of the faculty were women in 1992, compared to 56% in education, 23% in the natural sciences, and 26% in engineering (NCES, 1995a).

These data regarding women faculty are important because the career track to administration most often began with tenured or continuing contract faculty positions (Bernstein, 1984; Moore, 1983, 1984). More than 80% of the women who responded to Moore's (1983) survey of women administrators had held faculty positions.

Another typical route has been the academic department chair. Warner and DeFleur (1993) reported on their 1988 study of a random selection of 800 administrators with the title of dean or above, with a 50% response rate. The sample included administrators at public and private two-year and four-year institutions. They found that while the academic chairmanship was not the only route to higher-level academic administration, it appeared to be the most common. Ross and Green (1990) reported that 40% of provosts had been department chairs.

Vaughan (1990) concluded from a 17-year study of community college deans of instruction and presidents that deans of instruction were almost mirror

images of concurrent presidents. The exception was that more of the academic deans were women than the concurrent presidents. Clearly the pathway to the community college presidency according to Vaughan was the academic deanship, preceded by academic faculty positions.

Compensation of Women Faculty

Women faculty have averaged lower salaries than men faculty at all ranks and at every type of institution (Touchton & Davis, 1991). The average salary for female faculty in 1986 was 80% of the average salary for men in comparable positions, with the gap widening by 2% since 1976 (NCES, 1987). Although faculty salaries rose for both men and women between 1976 and 1986, they rose at a slightly lower rate for women: 83% increase for women compared to 87% increase for men (NCES, 1987). Among full-time faculty, women received significantly less income from all sources than their male counterparts. For example, women earned 25% less base salary in 1986 (\$42,322 for men and \$31,755 for women) and 32% less total income (\$53,318 for men and \$36,398 for women) (NCES, 1987). By 1992, the total earned income had declined for men and increased for women with a net lowering of the salary inequity to 25% (\$51,459 for men versus \$38,230 for women) (NCES, 1995b). Income disparities persisted even when men and women were at the same academic rank and in the same type of institution, or at the same academic rank and in the same program area (NCES, 1993b).

In 1991, women faculty members were paid an average of \$10,401 less per year in private colleges and \$8,604 less in public colleges than men in comparable positions. Salary disparities were most evident in universities, where women's

mean faculty salaries averaged 78% of the salaries of male faculty (NCES, 1993b). Regardless of rank in 1995, male faculty continued to earn more than their female counterparts. At the rank of full professor, male faculty earned 13% more than female faculty. Male lecturers earned 12% more than female lecturers. The gap was narrowest at the instructor rank (\$30,560 for men versus \$29,080 for women) with men earning 5% more than women (AAUP, 1995).

The AAUP (1996) faculty salary study for 1995-96 continued to indicate that women's pay in higher education has remained substantially unchanged since 1989-90. Although there has been a steady and rapid growth of women represented among higher education faculty, that growth has not been accompanied by any noticeable change in the pay of women compared to men, when adjusted for faculty members' ages and hours worked.

Compensation of Women Administrators

For all administrative titles in 1987-88, men earned more than women, even for female-dominated professions (Touchton & Davis, 1991). For example, the median salary earned by a male dean of nursing in 1987 was \$59,122, while a female dean of nursing earned \$52,000 (CUPA, 1988).

Salary differentials for administrators varied by position and type of institution. In 1987 for the position of president, there was a 6% salary differential between men and women in public four-year institutions; 16% in private four-year institutions; 2% in public two-year colleges; and 22% in private two-year colleges (ACE, 1990b). The 1994-95 CUPA administrative salary survey with 1,509 institutions reporting compared administrative salaries of men and women at doctoral, comprehensive, general baccalaureate, and two-year

institutions (CUPA, 1995a). Although the data were incomplete for comprehensive institutions, at doctoral universities, female CEOs earned 85% of male CEOs and at two-year colleges female CEOs earned 94% of male CEOs. The trend had reversed itself from previous years for general baccalaureate institutions reporting, where male CEOs earned 84% of female CEOs.

In general, women in chief administrative officer positions (executive, academic, business, development, and student affairs) in 1994-95 had lower median salaries than men in the same positions at similar institutions (CUPA, 1995a). The only exception was chief academic officers at general baccalaureate institutions where women's median salaries averaged \$2,250 more than men's in comparable positions (CUPA, 1995a). At two-year colleges in 1994-95, median salaries of female senior-level administrators were less than men's in every comparable chief administrative position (CUPA, 1995a; Phillippe, 1995). For example, comparing men and women in executive vice president positions with equivalent median years of experience (7.5 years), CUPA (1995a) reported that the median salary for women was 70% of the median salary for men.

A Women in Higher Education report, "Administrator Salaries Rise 4.2%" (1996), summarized the 1995-96 CUPA administrative salary survey,

Highest paid are deans of medical schools, with a median salary of \$201,240; lowest paid are admissions counselors at \$24,125. In this case, those who have the most direct effect on the nature of the student body, and are most likely to be women are paid the least. And those who virtually never see a student, and are virtually all men, are paid the most. (p. 8)

In 1995-96 for the first time, median salaries for women exceeded men's in some key areas in two-year institutions: chief academic officer, dean of business, and chief student affairs officer (CUPA, 1996).

Status of Women Students

The statistics for professional women employed in higher education are somewhat surprising when compared to the data for college students. Since 1979, female college students have consistently outnumbered male students and the proportion of women has continued to increase (ACE, 1990a). Women constituted 55% of college enrollment in 1991 (NCES, 1993a). By 1993, women represented 56% of all undergraduates, 53% of all graduate students, and 41% of first professional students (law, medicine, dentistry, etc.) (NCES, 1995a). Astin and Leland (1991) reported that women represented 93% of the enrollment gains in colleges and universities. Since 1980, women have been more likely than men to go directly from high school to college (NCES, 1993a). Female high school graduates were 9% more likely to attend college right after high school than male graduates in 1991 (NCES, 1993a).

Women have also made a greater gain than men in graduation rate from college. During the period 1965 to 1991, women showed a 97% gain in graduation rate while men showed only a 22% gain (NCES, 1993a). In 1965, 14% of female high school graduates finished college, compared to 22% of male high school graduates. However, by 1987 the proportions were almost equal (25% for women and 26% for men) and by 1991 the proportions were 27% for both (NCES, 1993a).

Although men and women earned approximately the same number of advanced degrees in 1992, the number earned by women increased nearly 150% over the past 20 years. Since 1977, the percentage of change in numbers of degrees earned in all categories (associate's, bachelor's, master's, doctoral, and

first professional) has steadily increased for women. From 1977 to 1988, there was no growth or a slight decrease for men. Whereas more women than men earned associate's, bachelor's, and master's degrees since 1986, the reverse was true in 1977. During the period 1984 through 1993, women's share of degrees grew most dramatically at the doctoral level (from 34% to 38%) and the first professional level (from 33% to 40%) (Table 2-4). With the achievement of 40% of all first professional degrees in 1992, women had gained 21% since 1984, showing increases in all disciplines (Table 2-5).

West (1995) reported that in 1994, 47% of Americans earning doctorates were women while 31% of the full-time faculty were women--a gap of 16%. However, during 1982, women represented 27% of the faculty and 35% of the doctorates--a gap of 8%. The gap had doubled in 12 years, according to West.

Women earned the majority of the doctorate degrees in 1991 in a few discipline areas, including foreign languages, education, allied health and health sciences, home economics, protective services, and psychology (NCES, 1993a). In all areas except protective services, the disciplines have been characteristically associated with women. Women accounted for 58% of the doctoral degrees in education earned in 1991 (NCES, 1993a). The National Research Council data (as cited in "Campus News," 1996) revealed that by 1994, women were earning 61% of all education doctorates.

Status of Women in Higher Education in Florida

The status of women in higher education in Florida parallels their status in the nation. Women are the majority of the students and graduates, but they

Table 2-4

Percentage of Increase in Degrees Earned by Women

Degree	1984-85	1992-93	% Increase
Associate's	56%	59%	+ 5%
Bachelor's	51%	54%	+ 6%
Master's	50%	54%	+ 8%
Doctorate	34%	38%	+ 12%
Professional	33%	40%	+ 21%
All	51%	55%	+ 8%

Source: NCES, 1988, 1995a.

Table 2-5

Percentage of Increase in First Professional Degrees of Women

Field	1984-85	1992-93	% Increase
Dentistry	21%	34%	+ 62%
Medicine	30%	38%	+ 27%
Law	38%	43%	+ 13%
Optometry	27%	49%	+ 81%
Veterinary Medicine	48%	63%	+ 31%
Pharmacy	50%	65%	+ 30%
All	33%	40%	+ 21%

Source: NCES, 1988, 1995a.

are the minority of the faculty and administrators (Florida Postsecondary Education Planning Commission [FL PEPC], 1996). ✓

In the Florida State University System (SUS) during 1992-93, 23% of all faculty were women and 18% of tenured faculty were women. Women tenured professors represented less than 11% of all tenured professors in 1992-93, a 3% gain since 1984-85 (Florida Board of Regents [FL BOR], 1985, 1993). In the Florida Community College System, 47% of all full-time faculty positions were held by women during 1990-91 through 1993-94 (Florida Division of Community Colleges [FL DCC], 1992, 1993, 1994b). This percentage increased slightly to 48% by 1994-95 (FL DCC, 1995b).

✓ In 1992-93, the proportion of women who occupied EAM positions ranged from 16% to 48% among the nine state universities. Women averaged 35% of the total SUS-EAM positions (FL BOR, 1993). In 1994-95, women held 38% of all full-time EAM positions in the Community College System; this was the same since 1992-93 but up from 31% in 1986-87. The number of total EAM positions in the Community College System declined by 178 or 20% of the positions overall between 1986 and 1992. During that time, the number of EAM positions held by women declined by 11 for a net increase of 2% (FL DCC, 1987, 1993). Women represented 25% of the senior-level EAM positions in the public community colleges in 1994 (FL DCC, 1996).

✓ An examination of community college administrators hired during 1994-95 revealed that more males were appointed to new positions than females (FL DCC, 1995a). For new hires in EAM positions, increases in the number of males were

considerable. Men represented 65% of the new hires in administration. They represented 45% of the new hires among faculty.

By 1995 there were 10 public universities in Florida. Among the 10 public state universities and 28 public community colleges, three community colleges and one university had women presidents in Fall 1995, representing 11% of the CEOs overall (FL BOR, 1994; FL DCC, 1995b).

Women comprised 57% of Florida community college students and 54% of the state university students in 1992-93. The same year in Florida, women earned 58% of all Associate of Arts degrees, 70% of Associate in Science degrees, and 56% of Bachelor's degrees (FL BOR, 1993; FL DCC, 1993). By 1993-94, women accounted for 59% of Florida community college students (FL DCC, 1994b). This percentage remained the same for 1994-95 (FL DCC, 1995b).

Women Leaders as Role Models for Students

In Florida and in the nation, women obviously have been the majority of the student body and have earned their fair share of the professional degrees which qualify them for professional and leadership positions. However, the data suggest that women have not fared well in terms of professional employment in higher education.

Student data are important in at least two ways with regard to the status of women in academic leadership and professional positions. First, women are now the majority of college and university students, and they need women role models both in the classrooms and in administrative positions. Bogart (1989) noted that "the exclusion of women from faculty and administrative posts not only means a loss of talent to academic institutions, but also a denial of

opportunities for students, male and female, to interact with women role models" (p. 384).

Second, many have documented that the doctoral or professional degree is a critical factor for advancement to senior-level and CEO positions in higher education (Anglis, 1991; Brusich, 1990; Moore, 1984; Touchton, Shavlik, & Davis, 1993; Venema, 1989). Women have been earning the degrees but seem to have been limited in their employment in professional higher education positions.

Shavlik et al. (1989) addressed the importance of targeting and promoting women for leadership positions in higher education.

Our global society is facing problems of potentially catastrophic proportions. We need the best and the brightest minds to attend to these problems. Women constitute half of the human resources available. They have the potential of providing at least half of the answers.

Higher education has a special responsibility to be a progressive, enlightening social force. This is our heritage and this is our social role. We should be a model for others to emulate. (p. 444)

However, even though women are available and qualified, they continue to face barriers that inhibit their attainment of top higher education administrative positions.

Barriers to Career Advancement for Women

The first step to strategizing the advancement of administrative women in higher education is to understand the barriers that have impeded their progress. Many contributing factors have been cited to explain why women have not gained equal access or equal opportunity in higher education leadership. Barriers identified in the literature have been classified as structural, external, and personal (Herrington, Wright, & Connaway, 1991). As defined by Herrington

et al., structural barriers include institutional policies and practices. External barriers are factors outside the college or university but not specifically attributable to the individual. Those created by the individual are referred to as personal barriers.

Structural Barriers

Discriminatory attitudes and practices have been identified as the major barriers contributing to the lower status of professional women in higher education (Astin & Leland, 1991; Taylor, 1981; Texas Council for Women in Higher Education, 1991). In a national survey of 601 university women administrators (with an 80% return rate), Pierro (1988) reported that 95.6% of the respondents perceived gender discrimination in higher education. Slightly more than half (51.5%) thought it was directed toward them, and 69.5% perceived it was directed toward other women and resulted in an interruption in their careers.

In a 1985 survey of 260 women college presidents, Touchton et al. (1993) found that more than half of the women agreed there was discrimination with respect to access to positions, promotions, and tenure. Similarly, a survey of women presidents and deans in California community colleges revealed a united belief that male discriminatory attitudes were primarily responsible for limiting female access to administrative positions (Hemming, 1982).

Schmidt (1992) reported that the lack of female role models contributed to fewer women applicants, discrimination, and a concomitant increase in the number of males entering education. Likewise, Sandler and Hall (1986) cited

underrepresentation of women among higher education administration and faculty as the foremost barrier to women entering administration.

Following their two studies of the learning climate for women undergraduates, Sandler and Hall (1986) concluded that the same "chilly campus climate" (p. 2) they described in 1982 and 1984 also existed for professional women. They determined that both women who work and those who learn in our colleges and universities are affected by this chilly campus climate. Further, they noted that the climate seemed to deteriorate for women as they advanced from students to faculty to administrators. The women were perceived and treated differently because they were women, which created a negative campus climate for them. Shavlik et al. (1989) defined campus climate in this context as "those aspects of the institutional atmosphere and environment that foster or impede women's personal, academic, and professional development" (p. 447).

Sandler and Hall (1986) characterized these aspects as subtle social and professional barriers that communicate to women that they are "not quite first-class citizens in the academic community" (p. 1). They cited several contributing factors. Since there were so few women in leadership roles to emulate, so few to serve as mentors, and so few to demonstrate success, Sandler and Hall believed that administrative women experienced both isolation and heightened visibility. Their underrepresentation in senior administration also contributed to their being treated as "tokens: overly visible, over-extended, sometimes given more responsibility than power, sometimes not supported by those above them" (p. 14). Both situations--being treated at times as representatives of their class and at

other times as exceptional performers--worked to their disadvantage, they reported.

Sandler and Hall observed that a woman administrator was rarely regarded as an individual administrator; she was a "woman administrator." When she failed to meet expectations she was often perceived as evidence that a woman is not appropriate for the leadership role attained; when she succeeded, on the other hand, she was viewed as exceptional. Further, they reported that the very limited numbers of women in leadership positions (cited by Sandler and Hall as only 1.1 women per higher education institution in 1983) created an expectation and mental image of leadership as characteristically male. "Leadership--perhaps the primary quality sought in administrators, particularly at the highest levels--has generally been associated with men and with male styles of behavior," reported Sandler and Hall (p. 13). As such, they noted the demoralizing tendency of people to question the professional status and authority of women leaders. Further, they recognized that senior administrators were generally chosen by other senior administrators and presidents, who were most frequently men. These positions remained socially homogeneous, with those in leadership positions most often hiring people like themselves (i.e., men continued to hire more men). In sum, according to Sandler and Hall, this differential treatment of men and women and the lower status of women undermined women's self-esteem, damaged the professional morale for current and aspiring women administrators, and impeded their advancement.

Shavlik and Touchton (1984) examined systemic barriers to women's advancement as a first step to establishing the American Council on Education

National Identification Program (ACE/NIP). This program was designed to identify and improve the leadership opportunities of talented women in higher education. The barriers they identified included

a widespread belief within the higher education community that not many women were really qualified to assume major responsibilities within institutions, a lack of interest or an unconscious disinterest in recognizing and promoting women leaders, and a habitual inability to recruit and support women leaders. The natural tendency of executive management to select and promote people like themselves (Kanter, 1977), the isolation of women administrators, and the tendency of women to compare themselves with an ideal of leadership (men compare themselves with other men) constitute other barriers. Finally, the absence of a comprehensive set of networks enabling new and different people to enter the leadership ranks, failure to understand that institutions could be greatly improved by adding women and minorities to the leadership pool, failure to recognize that most training for management and leadership roles occurs on the job and women should be hired for their potential, just as men are, and the problems created for minority women by double discrimination compound the problem. (p. 49)

Shakeshaft (1989) noted that the positions that women hold are barriers to their career advancement. Further, she observed that women typically occupy staff rather than line positions which provide little opportunity for advancement. Vaughan (1990) identified the line position of academic dean or vice president as the predominant pathway to the presidency of community colleges for both men and women. In his study of these chief academic officers in 1987, women were identified in these positions 21% of the time.

Timpano and Knight (1976) also described several "filters" as overt barriers to the successful selection and appointment of female administrators. These filters included the following.

1. Recruiting filters--recruiting from networks that were exclusive to men and not open to women, referred to as "good old boy networks"; notifying

women's organizations of only certain low level administrative positions; and avoiding advertising in journals targeted at women;

2. Application filters--application items regarding parental and marital status; and separating applications by gender;

3. Selection filters--special requirements for female candidates only; and selecting candidates for interviews based on the depth of the resume and experience;

4. Interview filters--questions regarding personal matters; and focusing upon the applicant as a woman, rather than as a qualified candidate; and

5. Selection decision filters--different kinds of consideration given to similar traits in men and women; and, separate salary schedules for men and women.

Vaughan (1990), based on his study of 619 community college deans of instruction, reported numerous examples of gender stereotyping and gender-related questioning during interviews of women. He made it clear that gender was perceived as a problem for women being hired into senior-level positions. He quoted one dean, "Most people have been conditioned that males are appropriate in positions of leadership. It is hard for them to see a young, attractive female in the role. I feel I had to be twice as qualified as a male to get the same position" (p. 81). A number of the questions asked in interviews dealt with family life. For example, one dean in Vaughan's study was asked who would care for her children when they became ill.

Once on the path to administration, 65% of the women in Vaughan's study reported major obstacles to achieving an academic position. Institutional

culture resulted in such phenomena as women sensing that they were not taken seriously, men not wanting to work for a women, higher expectations of a woman, the tradition of only men in senior positions, and the perception that men but not women belong in leadership roles. Cultural biases related to the woman's place in society also were perceived as interferences.

Men's role expectations for women also block the advancement of women. Astin and Leland (1991) reported male senior administrator comments directed at female administrator applicants. Comments identified by the women included, "Well, let's face it. You come on too strong for a woman." "Well, I don't want to hire a woman because" "You're not a professional. You're a housewife who went back to school" (p. 94). Astin and Leland described the common expectation that women were best suited for nursing, public school classroom teaching, and home economics. To emphasize their finding, they noted that of 1,400 faculty members at Cornell in 1970, 100 were women of which 75 were in the College of Home Economics.

The exclusion of women from higher status positions is popularly referred to as "the glass ceiling" (Morrison, White, Van Velsor, & The Center for Creative Leadership, 1992). ✓ Haslett, Geis, and Carter (1993) described the glass ceiling as a direct result of perceptual bias. They stated, "Because women are seen as less competent than men, women are less likely to be promoted, or to be promoted more slowly than men with the same qualifications" (p. 37). ✓ Gupta, Jenkins, and Beehr (1983) found in their study of working supervisors and subordinates that women received higher performance evaluations than men, while men received more promotions than the women.

Many role expectations of women have been described as "myths" (Hall & Sandler, 1982; Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1988; Sandler & Hall, 1986). For example, women are perceived as immobile and unwilling to relocate to achieve advancement. Sagaria and Johnsrud (1988) found the mobility rate of women to be greater than men both within and between institutions. Despite the popular belief that women talk more, studies by Hall and Sandler (1982) demonstrated that in formal groups like classrooms and meetings, this perception is unfounded. Hall and Sandler reported the following findings.

1. Men talk more often, for longer periods, and take more turns than women.
2. Men interrupt women much more frequently than vice versa.
3. Men's interruptions of women are more frequently trivial or inappropriately personal, serving to end the women's contributions or change the subject.

External Barriers

Blanshan and Gee (1993) identified role cycling as the dilemma a woman faces when she wants to have a family and a career--the conflict between her parenting and career life cycles, which reach peak demands at about the same time. The role cycling conflict has been identified by others as a major barrier for women who aspire to and achieve administrative roles (Kelly & Slaughter, 1990; Taylor, 1981).

The multiple roles of women often interfere with their career progress. Bird (1984) examined whether women administrators differed significantly from men administrators regarding career and family characteristics. She found that

women administrators more often experienced "role overload" than did men administrators. Women were also twice as likely as men to be part of a two-career relationship. Women leaders found it much harder than men in comparable roles to separate work and family. Women were less likely than men to say "no" to increased work responsibilities. Men administrators enjoyed a more supportive family environment in which to achieve their career goals, while women administrators more often lacked a spousal relationship that served to shield them from family problems.

However, Helgesen (1990) saw this complexity of women's lives as giving them a slight advantage for success in today's workplace. She pointed out that women who attained senior-level leadership positions in higher education also possessed the skills and energy necessary to survive and do well at both work and at home. Helgesen viewed today's women's role of successfully integrating home, family, and work as excellent training for critical leadership skills. She noted the similarities of the skills required for success in both family management and administration: maintaining balance, setting priorities, managing crises, and focusing on process as much as product.

✓ Women have traditionally not been part of the networks which are important links for recruitment and hiring into faculty and administrative positions. Stokes (1984) studied the nature and extent of barriers that impeded the careers of 168 mid- and lower-level women administrators in the Florida State University System. She found that 87% felt informal networks excluded them.

✓ The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (1991), U.S. Department of Labor Glass Ceiling Initiative looked closely at nine Fortune 500 companies. The study revealed that networking was a practice that worked against women and for men. Sandler and Hall (1986) confirmed that the lack of supportive networks for administrative women was a serious limitation for women seeking advancement in higher education. They recommended that women aspiring to administration must learn to capitalize on both formal and informal networks. Taylor (1981) in her study of community college presidents in office in 1979 identified inadequate networks for women as a major obstacle they had to overcome to advance to their CEO positions.

Another barrier was referred to by Shakeshaft (1989) as the "conspiracy of silence" (p. 21). She noted that accurate data regarding the numbers and positions of women have been difficult to obtain. Shakeshaft observed, "For instance, the National Center for Education Statistics, a bureau charged with such tasks, compiles statistics on educational workers infrequently and then only breaks them down by gender in certain categories" (p. 21). Until Touchton and Davis (1991) published the Fact Book on Women in Higher Education, gender-based statistics were very limited. ✓ For example, Vaughan (1990) reported that since the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges did not collect information on the sex of chief academic officers, he had to guess his subjects' gender by their first names. Vaughan cautioned that this incomplete information has misled people into thinking that things are better for women in higher education than they actually are. }

CUPA has published faculty salary survey data each year since 1985-86. The report for 1994-95 (CUPA, 1995b) still does not segment the data by gender.

Personal Barriers

LeBlanc (1993) observed that "one of the greatest barriers to advancement is oneself" (p. 44). Many have identified diminished self-esteem as a significant impediment to career advancement for women (Astin & Leland, 1991; LeBlanc, 1993; Sandler & Hall, 1986). Astin and Leland (1991) stated that females tend to believe they must be twice as good as males to succeed in similar roles or positions. They described a set of personal beliefs that caused women to lose faith and self-confidence. First, the perceived scarcity of opportunities for promotion for women diminished their hope for success. Further, a recurring sense of the high price of a commitment to professional advancement left women vulnerable to pressure not to succeed. They experienced significant loss of time for leisure and for building and sustaining relationships, with the concomitant peer pressure to perceive these as "losses." The socialization of 16 to 20 years of the "hidden curriculum" of schooling, child rearing, and peer group contacts constitutes barriers to women's advancement and influence. Astin and Leland noted that such barriers become internalized and have a profoundly negative impact on women's career development.

Hall and Sandler (1982) identified overt and covert campus behaviors against women which created a negative classroom environment that dampened women's career aspirations and ultimately undermined their confidence. Sandler and Hall (1986) reported that the same subtle and inadvertent differences in the ways women faculty and administrators were treated undermined women's roles

and prompted them to doubt the value of their contributions. Astin and Leland (1991), in their study of three generations of women leaders in higher education, identified personal barriers of isolation, loneliness, lack of acceptance, exhaustion, time constraints, and lack of leisure. These barriers caused some women to question whether achieving senior leadership positions was worth the personal sacrifice.

Shakeshaft (1989) observed that the culture dictates the role, values, and behaviors of successful leaders. She noted that it is well documented that society is male dominated and supports a gender-based division of labor with male tasks being valued more than female ones. According to Shakeshaft, this explains much of the gender inequity in education. Two studies suggested that women's lack of success in achieving administrative positions can be explained by their lowered aspiration or lack of motivation for advancement (Dias, 1975; Landon, 1975). What some have called women's lack of aspiration for advancement, Shakeshaft (1989) described as a

very logical and effective mental health remedy. To desire something she believes she can never have may lead to bitterness and unhappiness. A more effective coping strategy--one more likely to insure sanity--is to not want what is out of one's reach. (p. 91)

Further, Shakeshaft described the lack of self-confidence or lowered self-esteem as a "consequence of a sex-structured society that generates a belief in females that they lack ability" (p. 85). Rather than viewing lowered aspiration and self-esteem in potential women leaders as internal or personal barriers, Shakeshaft concluded that they are both external in nature. Their beliefs are "reinforced by an organizational system that prevents women from developing confidence in

public sphere activities through both lack of opportunity and lack of positive feedback" (p. 85).

Schmidt (1992) reported that women do not aspire to or seek administrative positions because their perceptions are that their chances are low. Few female role models contribute to even fewer applicants, creating what Schmidt referred to as a "circular phenomenon." Taylor (1981) in her study of community college presidents found that women typically viewed themselves as assistants or helpers rather than as managers.

The American Association of University Women (1985) reported that more women than men cite lack of financial support as a barrier to continuing leadership training and completing advanced degrees. According to Shakeshaft (1989), women are more likely than men to sacrifice their education because of family responsibilities, allowing financial resources to be used for family purposes.

Institutional Role in Achieving Gender Parity for Women in Higher Education Administration

Much research and writing about gender equity in higher education administration has focused on career path analysis and the responsibility of women for their own career advancement (Barrax, 1985; Bird, 1984; Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988; Gasser, 1975; Kuyper, 1986, 1987; Moore, 1983; Paddock, 1978; Sandler, 1992; Slack, 1993). This perspective focuses on the personal barriers that women must overcome to achieve gender parity with men in administrative positions in higher education. Although less thoroughly researched, effective institutional strategies for promoting gender parity are also well documented in

the literature. These strategies aimed at structural and external barriers are examined in the following sections. Many experts have argued that higher education institutions and their leadership must take more responsibility for the achievement of gender parity for senior-level women leaders (Gillett-Karam, 1988, 1989; Green & McDade, 1994; Hensel, 1991; Moore, 1988, 1995; Sandler & Hall, 1986; Shakeshaft, 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992; Shavlik et al., 1989; Swoboda, 1993; Vaughan, 1990).

Commitment of Institutional Leadership to Gender Equity

Bogart (1989) identified critical conditions for change which allowed bellwether institutions to successfully respond to the needs of women. The first of these conditions was strong institutional leadership. The CEO was recognized as promoting gender equity by taking responsibility for initiating programs and policies and responding positively to gender equity needs as they arose.

Swoboda (1993) suggested that a commitment from chief administrators is necessary to spell out specific programmatic reasons for adding women in leadership roles. She advised that the institution should create a culture that is internally encouraging toward gender equity rather than one that is externally pressuring. The institution through the president and the Board should establish the need for diversity as critical for achieving the academic mission rather than for meeting affirmative action goals (Swoboda, 1993). They should set the tone for campus values, expectations, and standards, including the commitment to diversity essential for hiring and retaining women. The mission, values, policies, and practices should reinforce the conviction set by public statements from the highest levels of the college that diversity is a critical priority (Green & McDade,

1994; Kaplan et al., 1984; Swoboda, 1993). Kaplan et al. (1984) noted that existing administrators may need to "educate the members of boards of trustees to the importance of affirmative action to the health and vitality of the institutions they govern and seek board support and assistance in the advancement of women" (p. 86).

Shavlik et al., (1989) and Shavlik and Touchton (1992) identified a strong commitment by senior-level institutional leaders to address the needs of women on campus as essential to realizing gender parity for women. They also recognized that this commitment is important for helping women achieve their full potential.

Swoboda (1993) cautioned that if women do not share gender parity with men in senior-level administration, then attempts at affirmative action for women will be viewed negatively, as tokenism. The president's credo regarding hiring women needs to be, "Do as I say, and as I do" (p. 136), as demonstrated by the presence of women at all levels of faculty and administration.

Improving Campus Climate

Sandler and Hall (1986) designed assessment and educational programs to help academic leaders recognize inequities and improve campus climate so that everyone feels included and valued. They noted that such a climate is critical to attract and retain highly talented academic women leaders.

Sandler, Silverberg, and Hall (1996) recommended that institutions "designate a specific office and staff member to be responsible for evaluating and reporting on women's climate concerns for the entire campus" (p. 67). Further, they suggested that deans, division heads, and department chairs be required to

include in their annual reports information about the steps they took to improve the chilly climate.

Bogart (1981) developed institutional self-assessment tools and procedures to help promote institutional change. The Institutional Self-Study Guide on Sex Equity for Postsecondary Educational Institutions was designed following an empirical study involving 200 observers knowledgeable about the treatment of women in higher education. Bogart (1989) reported that the self-study guide was in place in hundreds of institutions as a tool to evaluate gender equity and to identify and prioritize objectives for improving gender parity issues.

Kaplan et al. (1984) advocated that administrators stay abreast of current research on women as a means to continuously update and improve policies and practices so as to be more responsive to women's needs. Further, the career paths of women on campus should be studied to identify gender-linked barriers within the institutions.

Shavlik and Touchton (1992) recommended that a commission on women be established or reaffirmed to plan for, implement, and monitor gender equity on campus. Sandler et al. (1996) also emphasized that a women's center was essential to providing support for women students, faculty, and administrators and for monitoring campus climate.

Accountability

Swoboda (1993) advised that institutions should track the number of women hired and promoted as well as their retention and tenure records, and compare these statistics with the percentage of women receiving doctorates in corresponding fields. Further, administrators should examine and publish salary

disparities, service loads, equitableness of work assignments, and availability of child care, flexible scheduling, family leave policies, and established spousal placement programs. To make the academic climate more responsive to women, Swoboda further recommended publicizing complaint procedures regarding discrimination and harassment.

As part of the long-range planning process of the institution, Shavlik and Touchton (1992) recommended that goals for gender equity should be established and other institutional goals should be monitored for their effect on women. They also recommended publishing an annual status report and 5-year reviews of the status of women. Further, Shavlik and Touchton (1992) advised that a full-time high-level person should be appointed to monitor gender equity issues and to serve as an advocate for women.

Kaplan et al. (1984) stated that "administrators should make recruitment and employment of women and minorities a job requirement for subordinates and make successful accomplishment of this goal an important part of performance evaluation and salary review" (p. 86). The development of such a campus accountability plan has also been recommended by Shavlik and Touchton (1992).

Family-Responsive Work Policies

Spheres of work and family are not separate but deeply interwoven for both men and women (Blanshan & Gee, 1993). Hensel (1990) noted that "childbearing does not just affect women and it is not just a women's issue. It is a social issue. Ensuring the successful development of children is no longer an individual issue. It is an issue for society as a whole" (p. 9).

Some have advocated a "family friendly" assessment of institutional employment policies and practices with the subsequent development of a Family Responsibility Statement (Blanshan & Gee, 1993; Hensel, 1991). Such a statement would clearly articulate that the institution is guided by values and practices in which families are supported and not disrupted by work.

Flexibility regarding work scheduling and location, part-time options, and position sharing are options that need to become institutionalized to accommodate women faculty and staff and dual-career couples in the campus workplace (Sandler & Hall, 1986; Shakeshaft, 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992). Blanshan and Gee (1993) recognized that allowing women and men more flexibility in choosing where and when they will work would help to transform the institution into a more family-responsive setting. "One's productivity, not one's visibility, is the appropriate performance measure" (p. 114) in today's workplace, noted Blanshan and Gee.

Benefit schemes need to be examined and revised to offer a menu of options suitable to women, families, and dual-career couples (Blanshan & Gee, 1993; Swoboda, 1993; Tack & Patitu, 1992). Child care may be a high priority for some while elder parent care may be more important for others. To accommodate women and dual-career employees, institutions should review all of their personnel policies to promote comparable worth of men and women, comparable worth of full-time and part-time work, and flexible work patterns.

One aspect of family-responsive employment is the ability of the institution to attract and accommodate dual-career couples. As Johnston and Packer (1987) pointed out in Workforce 2000, by the year 2000 the growth of the

labor market in the United States will slow to a level comparable to the Great Depression of the early 1930s. The largest available pool of workers for the year 2000 and beyond will be women and minorities. They specified that the policies and practices in the workplace should be reformed to permit women to fully participate in the economy and to guarantee that men and women have the time and resources necessary to care for and invest in their children and families. Further, the slow economic growth of the 1990s has made dual careers a necessity for many families. Dual-career families are expected to grow at an exponential rate in the next decade (Blanshan & Gee, 1993). By accommodating dual-career couples in the campus workplace, institutions will be more successful at attracting and retaining the best talent.

Part of the dual-career issue involves adopting family-responsive hiring practices. Hensel (1990, 1991) and Tack and Patitu (1992) noted that institutions must recognize that many talented potential employees have partners who also need employment. Institutions need to collaborate with other local employers to help find suitable employment for the spouse or partner. Another creative option would be to permit dual-career couples to share a contract.

Smart and Smart (1990) reported on their study of 10 dual-career couples at the University of Rhode Island. Jobs suitable to both members of such couples were hard to find. Often women were forced to choose part-time or nontenure track, temporary lecturer positions. Couples described such situations as perpetuating the stereotypes that women are less competent than men. Husbands often felt guilty about the job sacrifices their wives made. According to Smart and Smart, enlightened self-interest seemed to be leading some

institutions to make life easier for dual-career couples. When asked what they needed most, the couples surveyed listed assistance with child care as their highest priority. Other programs of significant importance included maternity and paternity leave, leave to care for an ill child or parent, flexible scheduling, job sharing, and choice of benefit programs.

Targeted Recruitment

Successful affirmative action approaches do not wait for women to apply; instead, the hiring committee goes out and searches for candidates and recruits them (Swoboda, 1993). Chamberlain (1988) urged colleges to establish a roster of professional women or to identify a talent pool as one of the first steps to promoting the advancement of women leaders.

Several authors advised that women aspiring to senior-level administrative positions should be encouraged to plan career strategies to facilitate their advancement (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992; Kuyper, 1986; Tinsley, 1984). However, many have found that women typically either set goals that are too low (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990) or have no career plan at all (Anglis, 1991; Brusich, 1990; Evans, 1986; Indress, 1989; Moore, 1983; O'Neil, 1989). Graves (1990) found in a study of 15 higher education administrators in Maine that the best candidates had not been actively in the job market. One-half of them either were recruited or were promoted from acting positions that they also had not sought. Similarly, Durnova (1990) found in her study of 294 women administrators in Texas community and junior colleges that only 14.6% of the respondents were actively seeking a job change.

Touchton et al. (1993) reported that only 4% of 230 women college presidents surveyed in 1985 actually had a professional goal to be a president; 51% of them were nominated or recruited by someone else. Most of these women felt that they got their administrative positions by accident or were quite surprised when they were directly approached and asked to consider the positions (Anglis, 1991; Kuyper, 1986; O'Neil, 1989). O'Neil (1989) described this as the "who me?" syndrome. Therefore, many argue that hiring practices should target and recruit talented women rather than merely advertising and waiting for them to apply (Chamberlain, 1988; Graves, 1990; Green & McDade, 1994; Swoboda, 1993).

Based on his 17-year study of community college deans of instruction and the pathway to the community college presidency, Vaughan (1990) addressed the college's role in proactive affirmative action. He recommended that the "community college should increase its efforts to move women into chief academic officer's positions, thereby assuring that the future supply of potential women presidents is adequate to meet the needs of the future" (p. 186). According to Vaughan, women must be encouraged to become community college presidents.

Leadership Development

Moore (1984, 1988) noted that women administrators are not distributed evenly across all categories of institutions or positions; rather, they are clustered in pockets at the bottom of many career ladders. She found that they primarily occupy positions in student personnel, financial aid, library, registration, nursing, home economics, and continuing education. Further, she and others have observed that faculty lines have traditionally been the pathway to administration,

and women have been underrepresented on faculties (Bernstein, 1984; Moore, 1983, 1988).

However, Moore (1983, 1988) advised that policies and procedures can be set to affect the distribution of women. Institutions should take specific actions to identify candidates for specific positions. One of these actions advocated by many leaders is to use staff development opportunities to prepare and promote women administrators from within the institution (Chamberlain, 1988; Gillett-Karam et al., 1991; Green & McDade, 1994; Kaplan et al., 1984; Moore, 1983, 1984, 1988; Shavlik & Touchton, 1984, 1992). Kaplan et al. (1984) advised that women's advocacy groups should be encouraged and supported on campus with their policies and practices incorporated as institutional policy whenever feasible.

Green and McDade (1994) and Schuster (1988) provided comprehensive descriptions of professional development options offered by professional associations and select colleges and universities. The following programs are frequently cited (Chamberlain, 1988; Green & McDade, 1994; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992).

1. American Association of Women in Community Colleges National Institute for Leadership Development (NILD)--Developed in cooperation with the League for Innovation in the Community College, NILD's primary purpose is to develop women leaders for the community colleges.

2. American Council on Education (ACE) Fellows Program--This was identified by Green and McDade (1994) as the premier fellowship/leadership development program in higher education.

3. Harvard University Institute for Educational Management (IEM) and Management Development Program (MDP)--The IEM program develops leadership and management competencies focusing on issues related to setting direction and marshaling resources. The MDP program develops leadership competencies of mid-level managers as preparation for advancement.

4. League for Innovation in the Community College Executive Leadership Institute and Leadership 2000--The Executive program is designed for potential community college presidents to refine their skills. The Leadership 2000 program provides an opportunity for community college teams to discuss issues and improve leadership skills.

5. Mid-America/Bryn-Mawr and New England/Wellesley College Higher Education Resources Services (HERS)--These programs provide an overview of higher education leadership for female mid-level managers and faculty.

From her study of 15 women administrators in public institutions in Maine, Graves (1990) found that an effective career development strategy was to appoint talented women to vacant positions in an acting role. Women benefitted by gaining administrative experience and strengthening their resumes.

It has also been argued that professional development should include support for women to attain a terminal degree. Durnova (1990) found in her study of 212 Texas community and junior college women administrators that a significant relationship existed between administrative rank and level of degree attained. Similarly, Moore (1984) and Vaughan (1990) found that the doctorate was an essential credential for advancement to senior-level community college administrative positions.

Kaplan et al. (1984) summarized the importance of leadership development for senior-level women administrators in higher education.

Administrators must recognize that women and minorities who are seeking the skills to become senior managers need specialized training. Assistance should be provided in the form of on-campus professional development programs, financial and other support for attendance at nationally recognized residential training programs, development of on-campus internship opportunities in administration, and development of career ladder programs that highlight promotional opportunities within the institution. (p. 86)

Beginning in 1992, Florida awarded annual matching grants to public community colleges and universities through the Educational Leadership Enhancement Grant Program (ELEGP). The ELEGP was designed to strengthen the professional course work or executive management preparation of women and minorities (Association of American Colleges and Universities, 1995). The primary goal of the program has been to promote women and minorities in mid- and senior-level academic administration. Common elements of the program have included (a) advanced leadership training, (b) national leadership training opportunities, and (c) mentorship with senior-level administrators. In 1994-95, 6 state universities and 13 community colleges participated in the program. Significant outcomes reported by participants included advancement and promotion.

More recently Moore (1995) and M. A. Sagaria (personal communication, February 26, 1996) discouraged the use of professional development strategies as a means to achieve gender parity. They described support for credentialing, acting positions, development programs, internships, and the like as "deficit strategies." Such strategies are designed to prepare women for leadership roles and have been based on the assumption women are not qualified or ready for

appointment to administrative positions. As described by Moore (1995), deficit strategies have represented symbolic appeasement more than understanding and correcting the system which interferes with gender parity for women. Moore and M. A. Sagaria each argued that women do not necessarily need skill development and credentialing. They emphasized that the data suggest that there are sufficient numbers of qualified and credentialed women ready to move into chief leadership roles.

Networks

Following his study of 619 deans and vice presidents of instruction, including 21% female respondents, Vaughan (1990) acknowledged the value of professional networks for aspiring women administrators. He recommended that women who are willing to serve as mentors should be included in the network of professional contacts.

Based on a study of Texas community and junior college women administrators, Durnova (1990) also recommended networking. She concluded that networks not only assisted women in learning about new positions, but also provided a support system among women administrators.

Swoboda and Millar (1986) determined that networking promoted women's advancement by fostering self-reliance through supportive peer groups and access to established leaders. They advocated networks over the dependency inherent in single mentor relationships.

Landino and Welch (1990) described networking as an effective strategy to "warm up the chilly professional climate" (p. 12) which is the result of relatively low numbers of women in chief leadership positions. They designed a campus

network at a large, comprehensive state university. The network provided mutual support and collaboration to improve the atmosphere for women on the campus.

The Office of Women in Higher Education of the American Council on Education National Identification Program (ACE/NIP) is a major women's network which works for the advancement of women in higher education administration (Chamberlain, 1988). The program operates in each of the 50 states, Washington, DC, and Puerto Rico. Its primary goal is to promote both women's leadership and women leaders. National and state ACE/NIP networks identify, promote, encourage, and support women administrators and the institutions where they serve (Shavlik & Touchton, 1984).

Mentors

Mentoring has been identified as an important career development strategy (Kaplan et al., 1984; Moore, 1983). Durnova (1990) found in a study of 212 Texas community college women administrators that 57% had a mentor, and those who experienced mentoring held higher administrative positions than those who did not. Simeone (1987) identified the important functions of the mentor or sponsor for aspiring women leaders or protégés. First, the mentor introduces and explains the customs, political climate, and expectations of academic leadership. Second, the mentor shares information and wisdom. Third, the mentor provides career assistance by making recommendations and promoting the protégé's candidacy with colleagues. Fourth, the mentor helps the protégé to build a self-image as a legitimate member of the leadership community. Durnova (1990) emphasized that those who had experienced a mentor will highly

recommend the relationship because of the emotional and intellectual support as well as the crucial information shared.

Moore and Sagaria (1990) stressed the value of mentoring or sponsorship for women's successful entry and early progress in academic careers. However, they recognized that it is often difficult for women to identify same-gender mentors since there are so few women academic administrators available. "Nevertheless, their value for introducing promising protégés to a powerful circle of colleagues, of promoting them, showing them the ropes, and providing opportunities to operate successfully among the powerful are repeatedly noted as extremely valuable" (p. 193).

Bogart (1989) identified the presence on campus of one or more women mentors who acted as catalysts for change as a critical component in the advancement of women. They described these catalysts or mentors as those who motivate, support, and mobilize other women.

Sandler (1992) recognized that professional academic women often have difficulty in obtaining a mentor. Their outsider status prevents them from understanding how the system works or what is necessary to find a mentor.

Institutional Incentives

Colleges and universities can implement a variety of proven incentive strategies as innovative recruitment methods to attract women. Swoboda (1993) advised that additional funding, lighter work loads, and release time are effective departmental and individual incentives which enhance recruitment of women and allow for the extra support they may need. Further, Shavlik & Touchton (1992)

recommended regularly celebrating progress toward gender parity as another effective incentive.

Likewise, sanctions can be used to reinforce the institution's commitment to diversity. The CEO who is serious about attracting talented women can impose a hiring freeze or transfer positions from departments that are conspicuously unsuccessful at diversifying (Swoboda, 1993).

Sensitizing Search Committees to Achieving Gender Diversity

Shavlik and Touchton (1988) observed that women are usually evaluated and promoted according to perceptions of past performance while men are recognized for their future potential. Since women are typically clustered in low-level positions (Moore, 1984, 1988), their resumes often lack the administrative experience which search committees seek. In research of critical factors on the process of hiring academic women administrators, Graves (1990) found that women usually did not get selected for an interview. However, she identified the interview as a critical factor for candidate selection and the primary factor over which women perceived they had the greatest influence. It is important to educate and monitor the search committee to insure that women candidates reach the interview stage. Green (1988) advised that affirmative action should not be left to chance. The hiring manager should develop and communicate clear guidelines to ensure that the search committee produces the desired results and identifies women (and minority) finalists.

Summary

Education needs many more talented women who earn equal pay and have equal rank for equal work (Bogart, 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1992; Swoboda, 1993). Nationally, women have comprised the majority of the undergraduate and graduate student body since 1990, and they have earned the majority of the associate's, bachelor's and master's degrees conferred since 1986 (NCES, 1993a). However, they have not achieved parity with men as doctoral or first professional students or graduates nor as faculty or higher education administrators (Knopp, 1995). The status of women in higher education in Florida parallels their status in the nation (FL BOR, 1994; FL DCC, 1995b; FL PEPC, 1996).

✓ Underrepresentation, lower rank, and salary disparity remain as serious inequities for women faculty and administrators in higher education (Knopp, 1995; Rigaux, 1995). The higher the degree, faculty rank, and administrative position, the less parity these women have achieved (Sandler & Hall, 1986). ✓ Like corporate women, academic women seem to face a transparent barrier, popularly referred to as a "glass ceiling," that seriously limits their advancement. Women who do achieve faculty and mid-level administrative positions often find that they cannot advance to senior-level positions, presidencies, and tenured faculty. Those who occupy senior-ranked positions experience serious salary inequities.

Gender inequity carries high costs for higher education (Hensel, 1991). Both male and female students are denied the opportunity to interact with successful women role models. The institutions are denied potential leadership and solutions to be offered by the women not hired (Shavlik et al., 1989).

✓
Structural, external, and personal barriers have been identified as limiting the access and status of talented and qualified professional women (Herrington et al., 1991). Structural or institutional barriers include discriminatory practices, policies, and attitudes which create a negative campus climate for women (Shakeshaft, 1989). This leads to the underrepresentation of women and contributes to their isolation and overvisibility. With so few women in leadership roles, there is an expectation that leadership is characteristically male. Further, the search and hiring process presents a handicap for professional women since men as the majority more often select other men (Kanter, 1977).

External barriers are present for professional women in the form of family responsibilities, multiple role conflicts, and limited networking opportunities (Kelly & Slaughter, 1990; Sandler & Hall, 1986). The discrimination that women confront on campus also contributes to personal barriers. Sensing devaluation in their academic environment, women experience diminished self-esteem and lowered aspiration (Sandler & Hall, 1986; Shakeshaft, 1989).

To help women overcome barriers to their advancement and to achieve gender parity, a variety of change strategies have been described. Although most research has focused on women's responsibility for their own career development, some experts have identified institutional strategies targeted at the structural and external barriers women face. Those commonly cited in the literature include the following.

1. Eliciting strong public commitment from senior administration to gender diversity (Bogart, 1989).

2. Fostering a campus climate and organizational culture that are supportive of women (Sandler & Hall, 1986).
3. Developing accountability for progress toward achieving gender equity goals (Swoboda, 1993).
4. Implementing family-responsive work policies and practices (Hensel, 1991).
5. Targeting and recruiting qualified women (Kuyper, 1986).
6. Providing leadership development opportunities for talented women (Green & McDade, 1994).
- ✓ 7. Supporting and encouraging networking opportunities for professional women (Shavlik & Touchton, 1992).
- ✓ 8. Providing mentors for aspiring women (Moore, 1983).
9. Providing institutional incentives that promote gender equity (Kaplan et al., 1984).
10. Conducting searches which insure women are interviewed for job openings (Graves, 1990).

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology of the study. Following an overview of the problem, the design, selection of subjects, instrumentation, and methods of data analysis are detailed for each research question to be investigated.

Introduction

Women have not attained gender parity in senior-level administrative positions in Florida's public community colleges (Regional Roundtable for Women in Education Leadership, 1991). This is evidenced by the lower proportion of women and salary inequity of women and men in these positions. Overall, women represented 38% of all combined senior-level and instructional administrative positions in 1994-95 in Florida public community colleges, reported as an executive, administrative, and management (EAM) cohort (FL DCC, 1995b). They comprised 25% of full-time senior-level EAM positions (FL DCC, 1996). Females represented in the EAM cohort earned 95% of the comparable salaries of their male counterparts in 1994-95 (FL DCC, 1995c).

With its passage of the Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992), Florida mandated that the public community colleges improve the status of women in administration with the goal of achieving gender parity. Since there has not been an action plan recommended in Florida, it

would be helpful to specify successful gender equity strategies that the community colleges could consider.

The purpose of this study was to identify gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions.

1. What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration?
2. Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida?
3. Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges?

Nature of the Design

The research design was divided into two phases. The first phase addressed research question 1: What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration? Institutional gender equity strategies were identified in the literature and validated by a panel of experts in the field of gender equity in higher education.

The second phase addressed research questions 2 and 3. This phase of the study focused on the relative power of the independent gender equity strategies

to influence gender parity for community college women administrators.

Question 2 states: Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida? Women administrators at each community college were surveyed for their ratings of the level of implementation of each strategy at their respective institutions. Question 3 states: Are there differences in the level of implementation of identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges? An ex post facto design was used to compare the means of the women administrators' ratings of the level of implementation of the strategies by college gender equity achievement rate, grouped as high, medium, and low. The ratings for each gender equity strategy were tested through a separate analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if statistically significant differences existed. Tukey's Studentized Range Test was used to determine which of the pairs was significantly different from each other at the .05 level of significance.

Phase 1

Design

In phase 1 of the study pertaining to research question number 1, 30 institutional gender equity strategies were identified from a thorough review of the relevant literature for the period 1980-1996. Strategies which frequently appeared were listed. This list of 30 strategies was validated by nationally recognized experts in the field of gender equity in higher education. These

experts were asked to determine which strategies they considered to be effective for promoting gender parity for women in community college administration.

Selection of the Expert Panel

A panel of 10 nationally recognized writers and researchers who have published in the field of gender parity for women in higher education was selected. Five members of the panel were experts with professional interest in the community college.

Instrumentation

Potential members of the panel were contacted by telephone to seek their participation in an evaluation of the 30 gender equity strategies identified by the researcher. A transmittal letter (Appendix C) and survey questionnaire (Appendix D) were then mailed to each person to solicit information in two areas. First, the experts were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of each strategy for promoting gender parity for senior-level administrative women. A Likert-type 5-point response scale was used, from 5 (very effective) to 1 (ineffective). The second area involved the appropriateness of the strategies specifically for implementation in a community college. Since most research and writing about gender equity strategies related to the university setting, the researcher considered it important for the panel of experts to determine if they were also applicable to the community college. The experts were asked to rate the appropriateness on another Likert-type 5-point response scale, from 5 (very appropriate) to 1 (very inappropriate). The return rate was 100%. The response

rate was 100% for the effectiveness ratings and 80% for the appropriateness ratings.

Data Analysis

Research question 1 was tested by using descriptive statistics to summarize survey results. The mean was calculated for each of the 30 variables on the effectiveness and appropriateness scales. Strategies that received a minimum average of 3.1 on both the effectiveness and the appropriateness rating scales were selected for consideration in phase 2.

Phase 2

Design

The second phase of the study addressed research questions 2 and 3, examining whether each of the strategies had been influential in changing the status of women in senior-level administration at the community colleges. Specifically, the researcher used an ex post facto design to investigate how the independent gender equity strategies were related to gender parity for administrative women at the community colleges. Representation and attainment of senior-level administrative positions were considered.

The 28 Florida public community colleges were grouped by high gender equity achievement (HGEA), medium gender equity achievement (MGEA), and low gender equity achievement (LGEA). The most recent data (Fall semester 1994-95) were obtained from the Florida Division of Community Colleges Annual Personnel Reports (APR) to establish the gender equity achievement rate for each community college (FL DCC, 1996). To preserve confidentiality the colleges

were identified by number (1 through 28) only. The gender equity achievement rate was determined by the percentage of senior-level EAM women at each college. The colleges were rank ordered from high to low according to this rate. The colleges were classified as high achieving (HGEA), medium achieving (MGEA), or low achieving (LGEA) by separating the colleges into three fairly equal groups. There were 9 colleges represented in the HGEA group, 10 colleges in the MGEA group, and 9 colleges in the LGEA group.

To address research question 2, administrative women were surveyed for their assessment of the level of implementation of the identified strategies at their respective institutions. To address research question 3, the women's mean ratings from the groups were compared to determine if significant differences existed.

Population and Selection Procedures

The population surveyed for the second phase of the study comprised administrative women at Florida public community colleges during Spring semester 1995-96, as reported in the Division of Community Colleges 1994-95 APR ($N = 1,159$) (FL DCC, 1996). Among those surveyed, 61 surveys were undeliverable because the women had moved, retired, or expired. Another 25 respondents indicated they were misclassified and were declared ineligible. Therefore, the adjusted population as defined by Dillman (1978) included 1,073 women administrators. The positions were classified in the Division of Community Colleges APR as occupational activity codes 01, 03, and 06. Code 01 included executive, administrative, and managerial staff with college-wide authority; i.e., president, vice president, provost, and dean (if levels between the

dean and president did not exist). Code 01 represented senior-level administrators. Code 03 included instructional department administrators; i.e., dean, director, and department or division chair. Code 06 included specialist or support administrative staff; i.e., coordinator and project specialist. Women on part-time status, leave, temporary assignment, or soft money were excluded.

Instrumentation

A written survey questionnaire was mailed to each administrative woman classified as 01, 03, or 06 reported in the Division of Community Colleges APR data base for Fall semester 1994-95. The survey was conducted using the "total design methodology" described by Dillman (1978) and updated by Salant and Dillman (1994). The questionnaire incorporated a Likert-type 5-point response scale to measure the administrators' assessment of the degree of implementation of the identified gender equity strategies. The respondents were asked to choose 5 if they thought the strategy was "fully implemented"; 1 if they thought it was "not implemented"; and someplace in between, if they thought it was "partially implemented."

The questionnaire and accompanying transmittal letter were pretested by three groups. The first group represented colleagues of the researcher. The second pretest group included potential users of the data: human resource and equity officers, Division of Community Colleges staff, and senior-level community college hiring managers. The third group included 20 subjects drawn from the population to be surveyed. The people selected were chosen to represent a cross section of potential respondents: HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA colleges; and small, medium, and large colleges.

✓ To increase the response rate to the questionnaire, a survey announcement letter (Appendix E) was mailed to each potential respondent explaining and publicizing the survey. The letter announced the pending survey questionnaire, briefly described the purpose of the study, and solicited the participant's prompt response.

Following the "Total Design Methodology" described by Dillman (1978), the survey package included a transmittal letter (Appendix F), questionnaire (Appendix G), and preaddressed, stamped return envelope. The questionnaire was prenumbered to identify the community college and the individual. The individual identification numbers were used to identify nonrespondents, who received follow-up mailings. Two follow-up mailings were conducted after the survey package was mailed. The first follow-up was a letter mailed two weeks postsurvey (Appendix H). One week later, another full survey package with a more insistent transmittal letter (Appendix I) was sent.

The response rate was calculated at 63% with 677 of the 1,073 population members completing questionnaires. Salant and Dillman (1994) noted that a "low response rate serves as a warning that nonresponse error might be a problem" (p. 22). They defined the lower limits at 60% responses. Babbie (1973) advised that a response rate of 50% is adequate, 60% good, and 70% very good. The minimum acceptable response rate was set at 60%. The 63% response rate achieved for this survey was evaluated as satisfactory and not contributing significantly to nonresponse error.

Validity and Reliability

Alreck and Settle (1995) defined survey validity as "the degree to which the survey data or results are free from both systematic bias and random error" (p. 457). To be valid the survey must measure precisely what it is intended to measure. To be reliable the survey must be free from random error; reliability refers to the similarity of results obtained with repeated measurements (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Salant and Dillman (1994) identified four types of potential survey errors which interfere with validity and reliability: coverage, sampling, measurement, and nonresponse. The instrument proposed for this study was designed and administered so as to avoid these errors.

Coverage error occurs when the survey sample does not include all of the elements of the population under study (Salant & Dillman, 1994). Sampling error can occur when only a subset of the target population is selected (Salant & Dillman, 1994). These errors were controlled by selecting the entire population of women administrators at all 28 Florida public community colleges. The list was obtained from the certified personnel data base for the Florida Division of Community Colleges. Further, the extraneous variables of administrators who are part time, temporary, on leave, or on soft money were eliminated.

"Measurement error occurs when the respondent's answer to a given question is inaccurate, imprecise, or cannot be compared in any useful way to other respondents' answers" (Salant & Dillman, 1994, p. 17). A critical factor for controlling measurement error is the survey method selected. The mail survey questionnaire is the preferred method when a moderate to large, entire population is selected and when cost sensitivity is required. Respondent accuracy

with complex, quantifiable questions is also enhanced with this method (Dillman, 1978).

Measurement error and instrumentation bias were also controlled by triple pretesting for clear and unambiguous survey instructions and questions, and by pretesting to be sure the instrument measured what it was intended to measure. Further, efficient and practical scaling dimensions were selected (Alreck & Settle, 1995).

The first pretest group consisted of colleagues of the researcher, defined by Dillman (1978) as "other similarly trained professionals who understand the study's purpose, including the hypotheses to be tested" (p. 156). The group was encouraged to write in the margins of the survey, identifying ambiguous questions. The researcher was present during the pretest and observed respondents for signs that they were puzzled, misread instructions, or changed answers. A debriefing was conducted at the conclusion of the pretest. The questionnaire and transmittal letter were then revised and pretested again with a second group, representing potential users of the survey results. This group consisted of persons who had substantive knowledge of the survey topic and included representatives from college human resource departments, equity officers, Division of Community Colleges staff, and senior-level hiring managers. They were also observed while they completed the survey and debriefed following its completion.

The third pretest group included subjects from large-, medium-, and small-sized community colleges. This group consisted of 20 subjects from HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA colleges. Borg and Gall (1989) suggested that if the subjects

are taken from a well-defined, homogeneous professional group, then 20 cases for the pretest are sufficient. Dillman (1978) recommended that the respondents selected for a pretest should represent every major segment of the target population. The pretest form of the questionnaire provided space for the respondents to make comments about individual items and the overall questionnaire design, including the transmittal letter. They were asked to identify ambiguities and information which appeared to be omitted. The third pretest group was observed during the completion of the questionnaire and debriefed following completion of it. The questionnaire and letter were revised for the final time to incorporate their comments.

All three pretests sought to eliminate instrumentation bias and measurement error. To these ends, the pretests sought to answer the following questions as recommended by Dillman (1978).

1. Is each of the questions measuring what it is intended to measure?
2. Are all the words understood?
3. Are questions interpreted similarly by all respondents?
4. Does each close-ended question have an answer that applies to each respondent?
5. Does the questionnaire create a positive impression, one that motivates people to answer it?
6. Are questions answered correctly? (Are some missed, and do some elicit uninterpretable answers?)
7. Does any aspect of the questionnaire suggest bias on the part of the researcher? (p. 156)

Salant and Dillman (1994) cautioned that nonresponse error occurs "when a significant number of people in the survey sample do not respond to the questionnaire and are different from those who do in a way that is important to the study" (p. 20). According to Alreck and Settle (1995), the single most serious limitation to direct mail surveys is the potential for a low response rate. They

observed that the reliability of the data depends on the size of the sample obtained rather than the number of surveys actually sent. Nonresponse bias is the most important consequence of a low response rate (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Some types of people are likely to be overrepresented and others underrepresented, creating biased results. Since the population selected for this survey comprised women administrators who were highly involved with the topic, they were more likely to respond (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Further, survey attractiveness, packaging, presurvey announcement letter, transmittal letters, preaddressed and stamped return envelopes, and follow-up mailings were designed to increase survey return and control for nonresponse bias (Dillman, 1978). The minimum acceptable response rate was set at 60%. The response rate achieved was 63%.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed to determine if differences in women administrators' ratings of the implementation of gender equity strategies were dependent on the college's gender equity achievement rate, grouped by HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA. Each institutional gender equity strategy was tested independently. The categorical independent variable (gender equity achievement level grouping of the colleges) was related to the continuous dependent variable (the women administrators' ratings of the extent of implementation of each strategy). In such cases, the one-way analysis of variance is the preferred statistical test (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Borg & Gall, 1989; Shavelson, 1988).

The ratings by the women administrators of the implementation of each strategy were averaged for HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA colleges. A one-way

analysis of variance was used to determine whether the mean ratings for the three groups differed significantly. The critical value of probability was set at .05. When the F ratio was statistically significant at the .05 level, the researcher used Tukey's Studentized Range Test to determine which of the group means differed significantly from one another.

Summary

The research methodology of this study was divided into two phases. During the first phase, institutional gender equity strategies that promote gender parity for women administrators were identified from the literature. A panel of experts was surveyed by mail to specify the most effective strategies for the community colleges.

The second phase of the study examined how each of the identified gender equity strategies had influenced the representation of senior-level EAM women at Florida public community colleges. A gender equity achievement rate was determined for each college by calculating the percentage of women in senior-level EAM positions during Fall semester 1994-95. The colleges were rank ordered from high to low by their gender equity achievement rates. They were grouped by high (HGEA), medium (MGEA), and low (LGEA) gender equity achievement by subdividing the 28 colleges into three near equal groups: 9 colleges in each of the HGEA and LGEA groups, and 10 colleges in the MGEA group.

Women administrators were surveyed by mail to determine their assessment of the level of implementation of each strategy identified in phase 1.

Their scores were averaged for HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA colleges. A one-way ANOVA was used to determine whether statistically significant differences occurred in the women administrators' ratings dependent on gender equity achievement rate of the colleges. Tukey's Studentized Range Test was used to determine which of the pairs were significantly different from each other at the .05 level of significance.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

This chapter describes the results of the research study. Following an overview of the problem, the findings and data analysis are presented for each phase and research question of the study. Significant differences are identified and explained.

Introduction

Women have not achieved gender parity in senior-level administrative positions in Florida's public community colleges (Regional Roundtable for Women in Educational Leadership, 1991). They represented 25% of senior-level executive, administrative, and management (EAM) positions in 1994-95 (FL DCC, 1996).

In 1992, Florida enacted legislation which addressed gender inequity for senior-level administrative positions (Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act, 1992). The intent was to improve gender parity for women; however, an action plan was not specifically recommended. It would be helpful to identify successful gender equity strategies that the community colleges could consider as they strive to improve the status of administrative women.

The purpose of this study was to identify gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level

administration at Florida public community colleges. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions.

1. What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration?
2. Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida?
3. Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges?

Analysis for Phase 1

Research Question 1

Research question 1 asks: What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration? The following 30 gender equity strategies were identified from a review of the relevant literature for 1980 through 1996.

1. Make public statements that the status and representation of women in senior-level administration is a high priority of the community college board and president.
2. Assess campus climate to identify policies, practices, and attitudes that have a negative effect on women.
3. Sponsor workshops/programs that address ways to make the campus climate more supportive of women.

4. Appoint a high-level person with responsibility for advocacy for women on campus.

5. Establish a commission on the status of women.

6. Publish annual departmental data on the comparative status of professional women and men (numbers, position, rank, salaries, tenure).

7. Develop annual quantitative gender equity goals which address senior-level administrators.

8. Publish annual evaluation data regarding the achievement of gender equity goals.

9. Provide departmental incentives to promote achievement of gender equity goals; e.g., rewards and sanctions.

10. Include the achievement of gender equity goals in the evaluation of hiring managers.

11. Correct hiring and salary inequities as they are identified for women faculty, administrators, and staff.

12. Give specific attention to eliminating sexual harassment.

13. Adopt employment policies and practices that are family-responsive.

14. Provide assistance to dual-career couples.

15. Sponsor special professional development programs/opportunities within the college designed to identify and advance women in leadership roles.

16. Support participation in off-campus leadership development/fellowship programs for talented women; e.g., American Association of Women in Community Colleges (AAWCC) National Institute for Leadership Development, American Council on Education Fellows.

17. Grant financial support for employees to obtain credentials.
18. Grant release time for employees to obtain credentials.
19. Support participation of women in formal local and national networks; e.g., American Council on Education/National Identification Program (ACE/NIP), AAWCC.
20. Establish mentoring relationships for aspiring and potential women leaders.
21. Communicate the expectation that all administrative searches will yield qualified women candidates to interview.
22. Advertise job openings via media and networks to which women subscribe.
23. Personally recruit competent female candidates to apply for senior-level administrative positions (rather than waiting for them to apply).
24. Appoint women to acting positions when vacancies occur in senior-level administrative positions.
25. Sponsor administrative internships for potential women leaders.
26. Provide a search committee handbook with search guidelines which address gender diversity.
27. Assure that women are fairly represented on search committees.
28. Maintain a talent pool of prospective women candidates.
29. Advertise in job announcements that women are encouraged to apply.
30. Review candidates for ability and qualifications, rather than seniority.

Analysis of Panel of Experts Survey Responses

The first research question posed by this study identified 30 gender equity strategies that foster gender parity of higher education administrative women. A survey of a panel of 10 field experts rated each of the strategies for effectiveness and appropriateness for implementation in a community college setting. The return rate for the panel of experts' survey was 100%. The response rate was 100% for the effectiveness ratings and 80% for the appropriateness ratings. Two experts declined to assess the strategies for appropriateness in a community college setting, since they had never been affiliated with a community college. Table 4-1 reports a summary of the overall mean scores and number of respondents (*n*) on each Likert-type 5-point scale for the 30 individual strategies.

Effectiveness of strategies

The minimum acceptable average rating was set at 3.10 on a 5-point scale. The choices ranged from 1 (very ineffective) to 5 (very effective). All of the gender equity strategies were rated as valid by the experts on the effectiveness scale. Strategy 14 had the lowest rating with a mean score of 3.50. This strategy referred to providing assistance to dual-career couples.

Five strategies had a mean score above 4.50. Strategy 23 had the highest rating with a mean score of 4.80. This strategy referred to targeting and recruiting female candidates (rather than waiting for them to apply). Eighty percent of the respondents rated this strategy 5, indicating the experts considered targeted recruitment a highly effective strategy. Strategy 30 had a mean score of 4.70 and received a 5 from 90% of the respondents, indicating another highly

Table 4-1

Descriptive Statistics of Strategy (30) Responses by Experts

Strategy Number	n	Effectiveness Overall Mean	n	Appropriateness Overall Mean
1	10	4.50	8	4.63
2	10	4.30	8	4.50
3	10	4.20	8	4.38
4	10	4.20	8	4.13
5	10	3.90	8	3.88
6	10	4.40	8	4.75
7	10	3.80	8	4.13
8	10	4.40	7	4.29
9	10	4.30	7	3.86
10	10	4.60	7	4.14
11	10	4.70	8	4.63
12	10	3.90	8	4.63
13	10	3.70	8	3.43
14	10	3.50	8	3.25
15	10	4.20	8	4.50
16	10	4.40	8	4.63
17	10	3.90	8	4.25
18	10	3.90	8	4.13
19	10	4.20	8	4.50
20	10	4.20	8	4.50
21	10	4.60	8	4.50
22	10	4.00	8	4.25
23	10	4.80	8	4.38
24	10	4.30	8	4.25
25	10	4.10	8	4.25
26	10	4.10	8	4.13
27	10	4.50	8	4.63
28	10	3.60	8	4.00
29	10	3.60	8	3.88
30	10	4.70	8	5.00

effective strategy. This strategy referred to reviewing candidates for ability and qualifications, rather than seniority. The other three most highly rated strategies for effectiveness were strategies 11 (correcting inequities), 10 (evaluating hiring managers against gender equity goals), and 21 (expecting all searches to yield women candidates).

Appropriateness of strategies

The minimum acceptable average appropriateness rating was set at 3.10 on a 5-point scale. The choices ranged from 1 (very inappropriate) to 5 (very appropriate). All of the gender equity strategies were rated by the experts as appropriate to implement in a community college setting. Strategy 14, providing assistance to dual-career couples, had the lowest rating with a mean score of 3.25. It was also the strategy with the lowest rating by the respondents on the effectiveness scale.

Strategy 30 had the highest rating with a perfect mean score of 5.00. This strategy referred to reviewing candidates for ability and qualifications rather than seniority. It also had a very high mean score on the effectiveness scale (4.70). Strategy 6, publishing departmental data on the status of women versus men, had a mean score of 4.75 with seven of the eight respondents (87.5%) scoring this strategy 5. Five other strategies had mean scores above 4.50. Each of these, as follows, had a mean score of 4.60.

1. Strategy 1 referred to publicly supporting advancement of women.
2. Strategy 11 referred to correcting inequities.
3. Strategy 12 referred to eliminating sexual harassment.
4. Strategy 16 referred to off-campus leadership development programs.

5. Strategy 27 referred to women serving on search committees.

Results

A review of the literature resulted in the identification of 30 gender equity strategies for improving gender parity for women in higher education administration. A panel of 10 experts was surveyed to rate each strategy for effectiveness and appropriateness for implementation in a community college. The survey return rate was 100%. The response rates for the assessments of effectiveness and appropriateness were 100% and 80%, respectively; two respondents declined to rate appropriateness. The ratings by the respondents for all 30 strategies exceeded the minimum acceptable mean score of 3.10 on a 5-point scale. Thirty gender equity strategies were identified and validated, thus answering research question 1.

Analysis for Phase 2

Research Question 2

Research question 2 asks: Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida? Data describing administrative women's assessment of the extent of implementation of 30 gender equity strategies were collected through a mail survey questionnaire.

Description of Respondents

Respondents were sorted by college. The colleges were identified by number (1 through 28) to preserve confidentiality. The colleges were grouped by gender equity achievement rate, calculated as the percentage of women among

senior-level administrators at each college reported in the Division of Community Colleges Annual Personnel Report (APR) for Fall semester 1994-95. Table 4-2 describes the gender equity achievement rate (FL DCC, 1996), group, number of women listed (n), percentage of total listed, number of respondents (n), and percentage of total respondents for each college.

The colleges were rank ordered from high to low gender equity achievement with a range of 75% to 0%. College 1 had the highest gender equity achievement rate with women representing 75% of the senior-level administrators. Colleges 23 through 28 had no women in senior-level positions; therefore, their gender equity rate was 0.0%. The mean and median of the college gender equity achievement rates were both 25%. Six colleges had a gender equity achievement rate of 0% and four had a rate of 25%. Therefore, the central tendency of these data was remarkably stable at 25%.

There were 9 high gender equity achievement (HGEA) colleges (colleges 1 through 9) representing 149 respondents for 22% of the total respondents. There were 10 medium gender equity achievement (MGEA) colleges (colleges 10 through 19) representing 348 respondents for 51% of the total respondents. Within the MGEA group, college 16 accounted for 104 or 15.4% of the total respondents. There were 9 low gender equity achievement (LGEA) colleges (colleges 20 through 28) representing 180 respondents for 27% of the total respondents.

Table 4-2

Frequency Count of Survey Respondents Grouped by College Gender Equity Achievement (GEA) Rate

CC* ID#	GEA Rate	GEA Group	(n) Sent	% of Total Sent	(n) Return	% of Total Return
1	75.0%	HGEA	19	1.6	10	1.5
2	50.0%	HGEA	52	4.5	34	5.0
3	50.0%	HGEA	13	1.1	8	1.2
4	40.0%	HGEA	20	1.7	7	1.0
5	37.5%	HGEA	72	6.2	45	6.6
6	34.8%	HGEA	74	6.4	40	5.9
7	33.3%	HGEA	13	1.1	7	1.0
8	33.3%	HGEA	24	2.1	21	3.1
9	33.3%	HGEA	17	1.5	8	1.2
10	30.0%	MGEA	51	4.4	33	4.9
11	27.8%	MGEA	100	8.6	58	8.6
12	25.0%	MGEA	20	1.7	11	1.6
13	25.0%	MGEA	8	0.7	5	0.7
14	25.0%	MGEA	17	1.5	13	1.9
15	25.0%	MGEA	29	2.5	25	3.7
16	21.4%	MGEA	209	18.0	104	15.4
17	20.0%	MGEA	73	6.3	37	5.5
18	16.7%	MGEA	88	7.6	42	6.2
19	16.7%	MGEA	27	2.3	20	3.0
20	14.3%	LGEA	16	1.4	13	1.9
21	12.5%	LGEA	50	4.3	25	3.7
22	9.1%	LGEA	46	4.0	26	3.8
23	0.0%	LGEA	7	0.6	6	0.9
24	0.0%	LGEA	30	2.6	21	3.1
25	0.0%	LGEA	33	2.8	27	4.0
26	0.0%	LGEA	15	1.3	9	1.3
27	0.0%	LGEA	11	0.9	10	1.5
28	0.0%	LGEA	25	2.2	12	1.8

Source (GEA Rate): FL DCC, 1996.

*CC = community college.

Analysis of Survey Responses

Thirty individual strategies were included in the survey. Responses were calculated using a 5-point scale. The choices ranged from 1 (not implemented) to 5 (fully implemented).

Analysis of individual strategy responses for all colleges

Table 4-3 reports a summary of the overall mean scores (M), number of respondents (n), and standard deviations (SD) for each of the 30 individual strategies for all colleges. The mean scores for all strategies indicated each strategy was implemented at least some of the time. Nine strategies had mean scores above 3.00 indicating they were implemented most of the time. Strategy 12, eliminating sexual harassment, had the strongest implementation with a mean score of 3.79. The following describes the other eight strategies with strong implementation.

1. Strategy 17 had a mean score of 3.60 and referred to financial support to earn credentials.
2. Strategy 27 had a mean score of 3.60 and referred to women serving on search committees.
3. Strategy 20 had a mean score of 3.47 and referred to mentoring.
4. Strategy 30 had a mean score of 3.41 and referred to reviewing candidates for ability and qualifications, rather than seniority.
5. Strategy 22 had a mean score of 3.22 and referred to advertising job openings in media and networks to which women subscribe.
6. Strategy 24 had a mean score of 3.20 and referred to appointing women to acting positions.

Table 4-3

Descriptive Statistics for Strategy (30) Responses by Women Administrators at All Colleges

Strategy	n	Overall <u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1	651	2.73	1.31
2	651	2.40	1.13
3	649	2.58	1.24
4	648	2.06	1.25
5	643	1.54	0.89
6	645	2.06	1.33
7	633	2.33	1.39
8	641	2.32	1.42
9	644	1.66	1.00
10	637	2.15	1.21
11	645	2.51	1.33
12	652	3.79	1.18
13	647	2.99	1.24
14	637	2.01	1.08
15	651	2.82	1.37
16	644	3.09	1.31
17	651	3.62	1.42
18	649	3.04	1.41
19	645	3.22	1.27
20	648	3.47	1.34
21	649	2.90	1.34
22	638	2.92	1.30
23	633	2.42	1.24
24	647	3.20	1.27
25	638	2.30	1.26
26	637	2.16	1.22
27	650	3.60	1.20
28	624	2.30	1.19
29	643	2.56	1.46
30	640	3.41	1.23

7. Strategy 16 had a mean score of 3.09 and referred to off-campus leadership development programs.

8. Strategy 18 had a mean score of 3.04 and referred to granting release time to earn credentials.

Four of the strategies with strong implementation matched the strategies with high ratings by the panel of experts, who assessed the effectiveness and appropriateness of the strategies. Strategies 12, 16, 27, and 30 received high ratings by both the experts (on effectiveness or appropriateness) and the women community college administrators. Strategy 30 had high mean scores on all three scales: effectiveness, appropriateness, and level of implementation.

Two strategies had implementation mean scores below 2.00 indicating very limited implementation. Strategy 5, referring to a commission on women, had a mean score of 1.54. Strategy 9 had a mean score of 1.66. This strategy referred to departmental incentives to achieve gender equity goals.

Analysis of individual strategy responses by college gender equity achievement rate

Within each of the college gender equity achievement groups, differences emerged in terms of which strategies women administrators considered to be most and least fully implemented. Table 4-4 describes the number of respondents (n), mean scores (M), and standard deviations (SD) for each of the 30 strategies grouped by college gender equity achievement rate (HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA).

Women administrators in the HGEA colleges rated strategies 12, 16, 17, 27, and 30 above 3.00 on average, indicating these strategies had the highest level of implementation in their colleges. Strategy 12, eliminating sexual harassment,

Table 4-4

Descriptive Statistics for Strategy (30) Responses of Women Administrators
Grouped by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Strategy	HGEA			MGEA			LGEA		
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1	172	2.83	1.35	337	2.74	1.29	142	2.59	1.31
2	171	2.50	1.18	337	2.38	1.11	143	2.31	1.10
3	170	2.55	1.25	336	2.64	1.27	143	2.48	1.16
4	172	2.13	1.32	335	2.04	1.25	141	2.01	1.17
5	171	1.60	0.92	332	1.58	0.94	140	1.37	0.72
6	172	2.24	1.36	331	2.00	1.29	142	1.99	1.36
7	169	2.55	1.41	325	2.27	1.37	139	2.17	1.39
8	171	2.51	1.44	331	2.27	1.39	139	2.18	1.45
9	171	1.68	0.96	333	1.68	1.02	140	1.59	0.97
10	169	2.34	1.29	329	2.13	1.19	139	1.96	1.14
11	170	2.57	1.38	334	2.38	1.28	141	2.75	1.35
12	171	3.78	1.24	337	3.80	1.13	144	3.75	1.20
13	171	2.90	1.31	334	3.00	1.20	142	3.08	1.22
14	170	2.00	1.05	328	2.08	1.13	139	1.86	0.98
15	173	2.80	1.35	337	2.91	1.39	141	2.64	1.33
16	172	3.10	1.32	331	3.08	1.34	141	3.11	1.25
17	171	3.33	1.53	338	3.72	1.32	142	3.71	1.46
18	172	2.86	1.38	333	3.07	1.38	144	3.18	1.48
19	171	3.28	1.23	332	3.19	1.25	142	3.23	1.34
20	172	2.50	1.39	335	2.58	1.35	141	2.18	1.23
21	171	2.90	1.34	335	2.95	1.34	143	2.81	1.35
22	171	2.95	1.29	325	2.87	1.32	142	3.00	1.28
23	171	2.52	1.32	322	2.47	1.22	140	2.20	1.16
24	172	2.97	1.33	331	3.39	1.21	144	3.03	1.29
25	172	2.19	1.30	327	2.47	1.26	139	2.02	1.15
26	172	2.19	1.26	325	2.16	1.19	140	2.12	1.24
27	171	3.57	1.25	336	3.57	1.19	143	3.74	1.19
28	167	2.31	1.12	319	2.38	1.21	138	2.12	1.22
29	172	2.63	1.47	330	2.50	1.46	141	2.61	1.46
30	172	3.38	1.28	327	3.42	1.22	141	3.43	1.20

and strategy 27, off-campus leadership development, had the strongest implementation with mean scores of 3.78 and 3.57, respectively. Strategy 5, commission on the status of women, and strategy 9, departmental incentives to achieve gender equity goals, were rated as having very limited implementation with mean scores of 1.60 and 1.68, respectively.

For the MGEA colleges, eight strategies were reported as being implemented most of the time: strategies 12, 16, 17, 18, 19, 24, 27, and 30. Strategies 12 ($\underline{M} = 3.80$), eliminating sexual harassment, and 17 ($\underline{M} = 3.72$), financial support to earn credentials, had the most frequent implementation. Strategies 5 ($\underline{M} = 1.58$), commission on the status of women, and 9 ($\underline{M} = 1.68$), departmental incentives to achieve gender equity goals, had scores reflecting very limited implementation.

The two strategies reported as having the strongest implementation among the LGEA colleges were strategies 12, eliminating sexual harassment, and 17, financial support to earn credentials. The mean scores for these strategies were 3.75 and 3.71, respectively. Six other strategies were rated above 3.00, indicating they were implemented most of the time at the LGEA colleges: 13, 16, 18, 19, 24, and 30. Five strategies were considered as having very limited implementation: 5, 6, 9, 10, and 14. As in the other groups, strategies 5 ($\underline{M} = 1.37$), and 9 ($\underline{M} = 1.59$) had the lowest level of implementation among the LGEA colleges.

Results

The 30 individual gender equity strategies were analyzed for the total group of women administrators at all colleges and for women administrators

grouped by college gender equity achievement rate (HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA). As a result of the analysis of the descriptive statistics for both sets, research question 2 was answered. There was evidence that each of the 30 identified institutional gender equity strategies was implemented at the public community colleges in Florida.

For all three college gender equity achievement groups, strategies 5, commission on the status of women, and 9, departmental incentives to achieve gender diversity, received the lowest average ratings. These institutional gender equity strategies were consistently the least likely to be implemented.

Strategies 12 (eliminating sexual harassment), 16 (off-campus leadership development), 17 (financial support to earn credentials), and 30 (reviewing candidates for ability and qualifications, not seniority) were rated on average above 3.00 for all groups. These mean scores signified strategies that were implemented most of the time. Strategy 30 was rated on average by the experts as the most appropriate institutional gender equity strategy to implement in a community college setting and the second highest strategy for effectiveness. Strategy 12 consistently had the highest average rating, denoting the strongest level of implementation among the colleges. This may be explained by the legal implications of the strategy, and the increased attention sexual harassment has recently received.

Research Question 3

Research question 3 asks: Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management

positions at Florida public community colleges? Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted using the three college gender equity groups as the independent variables. The dependent variables were the 30 individual institutional gender equity strategies. An alpha of .05 was used to determine the level of significance. When a significant difference was determined within a comparison group, Tukey's Studentized Range Test (Honestly Significant Difference [HSD]) for variables was used to compare all possible pairs of group means. This test was chosen to control the Type I experimentwise error rate.

Analysis of Variance for Individual Strategies

Table 4-5 reports the ANOVA results for each of the 30 individual strategies. As presented in this table, the following strategies have significantly different group means at the .05 level.

1. Strategy 5: Commission on the status of women
2. Strategy 7: Setting gender equity goals
3. Strategy 10: Evaluating hiring managers against achievement of gender equity goals
4. Strategy 11: Correcting inequities
5. Strategy 17: Financial support for earning credentials
6. Strategy 20: Mentoring
7. Strategy 23: Targeted recruitment
8. Strategy 24: Appointing women to acting positions
9. Strategy 25: Administrative internships

For each significant variable by college gender equity achievement rate, Tukey's Studentized Range Test was used to determine which of the pairs were

Table 4-5

Analysis of Variance for 30 Individual Strategies

Strategy	n	df	F	p
1	650	2	1.33	.2657
2	650	2	1.16	.3136
3	648	2	0.89	.4105
4	647	2	0.45	.6353
5	642	2	3.15	.0435*
6	644	2	2.12	.1206
7	632	2	3.30	.0376*
8	640	2	2.46	.0860
9	643	2	0.46	.6293
10	636	2	3.86	.0215*
11	644	2	4.23	.0149*
12	651	2	0.10	.9091
13	646	2	0.88	.4159
14	636	2	2.09	.1247
15	650	2	2.07	.1275
16	643	2	0.04	.9591
17	650	2	4.90	.0078*
18	648	2	2.20	.1114
19	644	2	0.30	.7443
20	647	2	4.55	.0109*
21	648	2	0.51	.6028
22	637	2	0.52	.5927
23	632	2	3.07	.0470*
24	646	2	7.82	.0004*
25	637	2	7.14	.0009*
26	636	2	0.11	.8975
27	649	2	1.18	.3069
28	623	2	2.20	.1120
29	642	2	0.55	.5780
30	639	2	0.07	.9323

*Means are significantly different at $p < .05$.

significantly different from each other at the .05 level. The reader is advised to note that the large n attributed to membership in the MGEA group is ascribed to one institution (college 16) representing 15% of the respondents. The magnitude of this relationship can explain the overall significance of the strategies with the low explained variability (R^2).

Table 4-6 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 5, commission on the status of women. The F value of 3.15 and the p value of .0435 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-6

ANOVA for Strategy 5 (Commission on the Status of Women)

Source	df	SS	F	p
Model	2	5.01	3.15	.0435
Error	640	508.81		
Corrected Total	642	513.82		
R^2	cv	M		
.010	57.97	1.54		

Table 4-7 reports the post hoc test results. The post hoc test revealed that while strategy 5 was significant overall, there were no significant comparisons between pairs. The higher mean score for strategy 5 for HGEA colleges (1.60) compared to LGEA colleges (1.37) suggested that this strategy contributed to gender parity, even though it was implemented on a limited basis at all colleges (overall mean was 1.54).

Table 4-7

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 5 (Commission on the Status of Women) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
HGEA-MGEA	-.18	0.02	.22
HGEA-LGEA	-.01	0.23	.46
MGEA-HGEA	-.22	-0.02	.18
MGEA-LGEA	-.00	0.21	.42
LGEA-HGEA	-.46	-0.23	.01
LGEA-MGEA	-.42	-0.21	.00

Note. Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; df = 640; MSE = 0.795; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Table 4-8 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 7. The F value of 3.30 and the p value of .0376 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-8

ANOVA for Strategy 7 (Setting Gender Equity Goals)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	12.65	3.30	.0376
Error	630	1208.31		
Corrected Total	632	1220.96		
<u>R</u> ²	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>		
.010	59.55	2.33		

Table 4-9 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparison for strategy 7 was between HGEA and LGEA colleges. The difference in means was 0.38.

Table 4-9

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 7 (Setting Gender Equity Goals) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
HGEA-MGEA	-.03	0.28	.59
HGEA-LGEA	.01	0.38	.75***
MGEA-HGEA	-.59	-0.28	.03
MGEA-LGEA	-.23	0.10	.43
LGEA-HGEA	-.75	-0.38	-.01***
LGEA-MGEA	-.43	-0.10	.23

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; $df = 630$; $MSE = 1.918$; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the .05 level are indicated by ***.

The low means for all three groups (HGEA $\bar{M} = 2.55$, MGEA $\bar{M} = 2.27$, and LGEA $\bar{M} = 2.17$) for strategy 7 are somewhat surprising, since all colleges are obligated by statute to set and report gender equity goals (Community College Equity Accountability Program Act, 1992). However, the reader is directed to the women administrators' questionnaire items 4 and 5 (Appendix G), which addressed familiarity with the statute and their college's gender equity goals. Table 4-10 reports the mean scores (\bar{M}), standard deviations (SD), and number (n) of respondents overall and for the college gender equity groups for

these items. Further, item 6 (Appendix G) was a yes/no question asking if they had seen a copy of the plan (yes = 1, no = 2, overall \bar{M} = 1.77). These data suggested that the administrative women were vaguely familiar with the legislation and their colleges' gender equity goals, and had not viewed a copy of their college's plan. Therefore, the low means for strategy 7 (setting gender equity goals) can be explained relative to the low mean scores for questionnaire items 4 and 5 and the high mean for item 6. Only those who are familiar with their college's goals and plan would be able to rate the level of implementation of this strategy. Although this strategy evidenced a very limited level of implementation, the results suggested that it significantly contributed to achievement of gender parity for women.

Table 4-10

Analysis of Administrative Women's Familiarity with Gender Equity Legislation and Their College's Goals

Familiarity With	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Overall \bar{M} (n)	HGEA \bar{M} (n)	MGEA \bar{M} (n)	LGEA \bar{M} (n)
Legislation	1.00	4.00	1.86 (660)	1.99 (177)	1.75 (338)	1.97 (145)
Goals	1.00	4.00	1.93 (659)	1.99 (177)	1.88 (337)	1.97 (145)

Table 4-11 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 10, evaluating hiring managers against achievement of gender equity goals. The F value of 3.86 and the p value of .0215 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-11

ANOVA for Strategy 10 (Evaluating Hiring Managers Against Achievement of Gender Equity Goals)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	11.29	3.86	.0215
Error	634	925.55		
Corrected Total	636	936.83		

<u>R²</u>	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>
.012	56.22	2.15

Table 4-12 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparison for strategy 10 was between HGEA and LGEA colleges. The difference in means was 0.38. The data suggested that evaluating hiring managers against achievement of gender equity goals contributed to achievement of gender parity for women. The low mean scores for each group (HGEA \bar{M} = 2.34, MGEA \bar{M} = 2.13, LGEA \bar{M} = 1.96) indicated that this strategy, although significant for achievement of gender parity, had a low level of implementation. The low mean score for strategy 10 can also be explained relative to questionnaire items 4 through 6. The reader is referred to Table 4-10 and the preceding interpretation for strategy 7. Although this strategy should have been fully implemented since it was specified in the law (Community College Equity Accountability Program Act, 1992), it was apparent that implementation was limited. The data indicated that full implementation would have had an even greater effect on gender equity achievement rate.

Table 4-12

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 10 (Evaluating Hiring Managers Against Achievement of Gender Equity Goals) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
HGEA-MGEA	-.05	0.22	.48
HGEA-LGEA	.05	0.38	.70***
MGEA-HGEA	-.48	-0.22	.05
MGEA-LGEA	-.12	0.16	.45
LGEA-HGEA	-.70	-0.38	-.05***
LGEA-MGEA	-.45	-0.16	.12

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; $df = 634$; $MSE = 1.460$; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the .05 level are indicated by ***.

The ANOVA for strategy 11, correcting inequities, is reported in Table 4-13. The F value of 4.23 and the p value of .0149 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-13

ANOVA for Strategy 11 (Correcting Inequities)

Source	df	SS	F	p
Model	2	14.75	4.23	0.0149
Error	642	1118.43		
Corrected Total	644	1133.18		
R^2	cv	M		
.013	52.58	2.51		

Table 4-14 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparison for strategy 11 was between LGEA and MGEA with a difference in means of 0.38. Analyzed with the group mean scores (HGEA \bar{M} = 2.57, MGEA \bar{M} = 2.38, and LGEA \bar{M} = 2.75), the data seemingly implied that this strategy did not contribute to achievement of gender parity for women.

Table 4-14

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 11 (Correcting Inequities) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
LGEA-HGEA	-.17	0.18	.53
LGEA-MGEA	.06	0.38	.69***
HGEA-LGEA	-.53	-0.18	.17
HGEA-MGEA	-.10	0.19	.49
MGEA-LGEA	-.69	-0.38	-.06***
MGEA-HGEA	-.49	-0.19	.10

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; df = 642; MSE = 1.742; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the .05 level are indicated by ***.

Table 4-15 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 17, financial support for earning credentials. The F value of 4.90 and p value of .0078 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-16 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparisons for strategy 17 were between MGEA and HGEA and between LGEA and HGEA. The difference in means between MGEA and HGEA was 0.40. The difference in

Table 4-15

ANOVA for Strategy 17 (Financial Support to Earn Credentials)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	19.53	4.90	.0078
Error	648	1292.23		
Corrected Total	650	1311.76		

<u>R²</u>	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>
.015	39.04	3.62

Table 4-16

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 17 (Financial Support to Earn Credentials) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
MGEA-LGEA	-.32	0.01	.35
MGEA-HGEA	.09	0.40	.71***
LGEA-MGEA	-.35	-0.01	.32
LGEA-HGEA	.01	0.38	.76***
HGEA-MGEA	-.71	-0.40	-.09***
HGEA-LGEA	-.76	-0.38	-.01***

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; df = 642; MSE = 1.742; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by ***.

means between LGEA and HGEA was 0.38. Supporting women to earn credentials does not appear to be an important strategy for improving gender equity. This may be explained by the likelihood that a large proportion of women at colleges represented in the high gender equity achievement group already had doctorates. Further, there was no significant effect of this strategy on improvement from LGEA to MGEA. This suggested that the strategy overall did not contribute to achievement of gender parity.

Table 4-17 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 20, mentoring. The F value of 4.55 and the p value of .0109 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-17

ANOVA for Strategy 20 (Mentoring)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	16.22	4.55	.0109
Error	645	1149.22		
Corrected Total	647	1165.44		
<u>R²</u>	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>		
.014	54.03	2.47		

Table 4-18 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparison for strategy 20 was between MGEA and LGEA. The difference in means between MGEA and LGEA was 0.40. There was little difference in the mean scores for HGEA and MGEA college groups for strategy 20, with the means at 2.50 and 2.58, respectively. The mean score for the LGEA colleges was 2.18. The

significant comparison between MGEA and LGEA suggested that the mentoring strategy contributed to improving colleges from low- to mid-level status toward gender equity but had no further effect toward achieving gender parity.

Table 4-18

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 20 (Mentoring) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
MGEA-HGEA	-.22	0.08	.37
MGEA-LGEA	.09	0.40	.72***
HGEA-MGEA	-.37	-0.08	.22
HGEA-LGEA	-.03	0.32	.68
LGEA-MGEA	-.72	-0.40	-.09***
LGEA-HGEA	-.68	-0.32	.03

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; $df = 645$; $MSE = 1.782$; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level are indicated by ***.

Table 4-19 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 23, targeted recruitment. The F value of 3.07 and the p value of .0470 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-20 reports the post hoc test results. The post hoc test revealed that while strategy 23 was significant overall, there were no significant comparisons between pairs. Examining the mean scores (HGEA $\bar{M} = 2.52$, MGEA $\bar{M} = 2.47$, LGEA $\bar{M} = 2.20$) suggested that the targeted recruitment

Table 4-19

ANOVA for Strategy 23 (Targeted Recruitment)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	9.36	3.07	.0470
Error	630	959.33		
Corrected Total	632	968.69		
<u>R²</u>	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>		
.010	50.89	2.42		

Table 4-20

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 23 (Targeted Recruitment) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
HGEA-MGEA	-.23	0.05	.32
HGEA-LGEA	-.01	0.32	.65
MGEA-HGEA	-.32	-0.05	.23
MGEA-LGEA	-.02	0.27	.57
LGEA-HGEA	-.65	-0.32	.01
LGEA-MGEA	-.57	-0.27	.02

Note. Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; df = 630; MSE = 1.523; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

strategy contributed to improvement in gender parity from low to medium to high achievement.

Table 4-21 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 24, appointing women to acting positions. The F value of 5.28 and the p value of .0004 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-21

ANOVA for Strategy 24 (Appointing Women to Acting Positions)

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Model	2	24.87	7.82	.0004
Error	644	1024.41		
Corrected Total	646	1049.28		
<u>R²</u>	<u>cv</u>	<u>M</u>		
.024	39.42	3.20		

Table 4-22 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparisons for strategy 24 were between MGEA and LGEA and between MGEA and HGEA. The difference in means between MGEA and LGEA was 0.36. The difference in means between MGEA and HGEA was 0.42. The significant comparison between MGEA and LGEA suggested that this strategy contributed to improving colleges from low- to mid-level status, but had no further effect toward achieving gender parity.

Table 4-22

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 24 (Appointing Women to Acting Positions) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
MGEA-LGEA	.06	0.36	.65***
MGEA-HGEA	.14	0.42	.70***
LGEA-MGEA	-.65	-0.36	-.06***
LGEA-HGEA	-.27	0.06	.40
HGEA-MGEA	-.70	-0.42	-.14***
HGEA-LGEA	-.40	-0.06	.27

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; $df = 644$; $MSE = 1.591$; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the .05 level are indicated by ***.

Table 4-23 reports the ANOVA results for strategy 25, administrative internships. The F value of 7.14 and the p value of .0009 were significant at the .05 level.

Table 4-23

ANOVA for Strategy 25 (Administrative Internships)

Source	df	SS	F	p
Model	2	22.34	7.14	.0009
Error	635	993.08		
Corrected Total	637	1015.42		
R^2	cv	M		
.022	54.42	2.30		

Table 4-24 reports the post hoc test results. The significant comparisons for strategy 25 were between MGEA and HGEA and between MGEA and LGEA. The difference in means between MGEA and HGEA was 0.28. The difference in means between MGEA and LGEA was 0.45. The data suggested that administrative internships contributed to improving colleges from low- to mid-level status but had no further effect toward achieving gender parity.

Table 4-24

Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Strategy 25 (Administrative Internships) by College Gender Equity Achievement Rate

Group Comparison	Simultaneous Lower Confidence Limit	Difference Between Means	Simultaneous Upper Confidence Limit
MGEA-HGEA	.01	0.28	.56***
MGEA-LGEA	.15	0.45	.75***
HGEA-MGEA	-.56	-0.28	-.01***
HGEA-LGEA	-.16	0.17	.51
LGEA-MGEA	-.75	-0.45	-.15***
LGEA-HGEA	-.50	-0.17	.16

Alpha = .05; Confidence = .95; $df = 635$; $MSE = 1.564$; Critical Value of Studentized Range = 3.322.

Comparisons significant at the .05 level are indicated by ***.

Results

Analysis of variance of the mean ratings was conducted. Statistically significant differences in college gender equity achievement groups at the .05 level were identified for 9 of the 30 independent strategies. When the F ratio was statistically significant at the .05 level, the researcher used Tukey's

Studentized Range Test to determine which of the group means differed significantly from one another. Research question 3 was answered.

The ANOVA data suggested that strategies 7, setting gender equity goals, and 10, evaluating hiring managers against achievement of gender equity goals, contributed to achievement of gender parity. Strategies 5, commission on the status of women, and 23, targeted recruitment, seemed to contribute positively to improvement in gender parity for women, although Tukey's Test did not identify any significant pairwise comparisons. Strategies 20, mentoring, 24, acting positions, and 25, administrative internships, were significant for improving gender equity from low- to mid-level status, but were insignificant relative to advancement to the high group. Strategies 11, correcting inequities, and 17, financial support for earning credentials, evidenced an inverse effect on gender equity status, seemingly indicating they did not contribute to gender parity for women.

Analysis of Qualitative Survey Responses

The last item on the women administrators' questionnaire asked the respondents to provide any additional comments regarding gender equity and the advancement of women in community college administration. Their observations expanded the quantitative data provided in the questionnaire. Twenty-eight percent ($n = 187$) of the respondents shared written comments. The qualitative comments were represented by HGEA (22%), MGEA (56%), and LGEA (22%) college women. Of these, 20 respondents observed that they did not think that gender inequity was a problem. Some respondents ($n = 25$) returned their questionnaires incomplete, commenting they were neither administrative nor

professional staff and did not consider themselves qualified to rate the strategies. Further investigation revealed that classification 06 included persons who were administrative assistants, clerks, and technical staff. The remainder described their lack of information about their college's gender equity goals or plan, expressed their frustration with gender inequity, or suggested other helpful strategies.

The most frequent type of comment ($n = 32$) involved the women's lack of knowledge about state or college policy regarding gender equity, gender equity goals and plans, and evaluation and documentation of goals. They seemed surprised that such policy and plans existed. Their comments verified the overall responses to questionnaire items 4 through 6 (Appendix G), which addressed their unfamiliarity with the law and their college's gender equity goals and specific action plans. One administrator's comment summarized this observation, "I do not know what my college is doing to address gender equity. That does not mean that it is not being done. It is not well publicized."

Another frequent statement addressed the apparent lack of gender equity goals or action plans. In this case, the respondent further verified that she had no knowledge of her college's campus plan. She stated, "A high degree of gender equity has been achieved despite no formal plan to do so." Like many women at Florida's community colleges, she is clearly unaware of her college's gender equity goals or plan. Silence on this issue appeared to be prevalent. Since 1993, each public community college has written and evaluated gender equity goals and action plans to address gender equity for senior-level administrators. These plans are on file with the Division of Community Colleges. Another administrator

commented, "I have never even heard of this report and I work in the research office!"

Even when gender equity strategies were implemented, some lacked confidence in the effect. For example, one respondent stated, "Although some things are done, I feel the underlying reason is an attempt to document equity activities, not an actual commitment to achieving it." Another commented, "I was on the EEOC committee for three years dealing with minority hiring. Women's representation was shown in the data, but never discussed or addressed." Several expressed their frustration at the silence they experienced around this issue and the limited opportunity for improvement. One administrator commented, "gender equity is a major problem at our college and we have 'no voice' in getting it corrected."

Related to the issue of silence about gender equity, some respondents emphasized that the only equity concerns addressed were about racial, ethnic, or disabled minorities. One woman observed, "Equity is very important--we are seeking equal opportunity. We have a very diverse community college and community. But, women seldom have their issues given special attention." Another woman summed it up, "We need to focus on gender equity as much as we focus on racial/ethnicity equity."

Four women expressed fear about retribution. One comment was quite specific, "I am very uncomfortable completing this questionnaire. That says a lot, doesn't it."

The respondents described several examples of what they assessed as "gender discrimination" and "hiring inconsistencies." The most prevalent one

referred to salary disparity, mentioned by 25 women. One woman quoted her vice president to whom she pointed out a \$5,000 to \$10,000 gender salary differential she had identified, "This situation would continue because women are willing to work cheaper [sic]."

The following examples of other gender inequities were also cited.

1. Having inconsistent hiring practices.

One woman remarked, "In our department I see favoritism and more flexibility with negotiations regarding salaries of men." Another women commented, "Women who make it to a senior-level position receive a 'title change' which results in less pay and/or respect even though their duties are the same or even greater than the previous male senior-level administrator."

2. Failing to provide maternity leave.
3. Hiring men with master's degrees and expecting women to have the doctorate.
4. Expecting women to work harder and longer hours to achieve and maintain senior-level positions.

A respondent observed,

Overwhelmingly, women I have seen reach senior-level administration have had to work harder and longer to achieve that. I chose to raise a family and commit time to that priority. (Perhaps if I had a 'wife' I could have taken time to achieve the senior-level.)

Another woman administrator noted, "Women are expected to work longer hours, handle a greater workload, and make less money than male counterparts." One woman was concerned about losing her job for commenting,

Inequity still exists. In my position, the pay is the same as the males, but the workload is not the same. My program has more students and I oversee (more) counties/campuses. One male has just one campus-less

students; the other male has (fewer campuses than me) but additional help.

5. Using classification and reclassification systems that are inconsistent with regard to gender.

A respondent explained,

The last six upper-level administrators were all men. To accommodate the higher salaries, a new administrative classification was developed. The lowest classification is composed only of women, all of whom have many years of administrative experience. (Our college) is going backward, not forward!

Another woman administrator commented, "The male who has the same position as myself is a grade higher." A similar complaint was made, "Whenever an opening occurs at the senior-level and is filled by a female, the position is reduced to a lesser position." She cited an example, "VP of (anonymous) duties were taken over by a woman and the title of vice president was dropped."

6. Making token appointments.

A respondent noted, "My college has a poor record of providing leadership appointments for women, except for a few token positions."

7. Believing that women can be controlled.

An administrator commented, "I believe the reason I am in this position (only woman in the state) is because they think they can control me."

8. Omitting women from policy making.

A respondent explained, "I believe that women have not been given an equal role in determining policy, mission, etc., of the college."

9. Giving more attention to women outside the college.

A respondent observed, "We have an excellent women's re-entry center for the community. But, we don't take care of our own women." Another woman

noted inconsistencies in expectations between the colleges and the state: "At the state level of administration, the state needs to follow its own gender equity policy."

10. Conferring responsibility without status or compensation.

Observation by one respondent included,

current downsizing trends . . . indicate that fewer senior-level administrative positions exist. As a result, the middle-level managers--more often female--have the responsibilities but not the title or compensation of the vacant/eliminated senior-level positions.

A frequent comment referred to the "good old boys," referenced by nine women administrators. One woman administrator observed, "Currently, this institution is governed by a very strong 'Good Old Boys' network. Much hiring has occurred from recruitment in bars." Another woman commented, "Most decisions are still made by the good old boys on the golf course, at happy hours, etc."

Aside from these gender inequities, several women expressed frustration at the limited improvement in gender parity for women: "The glass ceiling is barely penetrable by females (in senior-level positions) at this institution" and "We have a long way to go!"

"Backlash" was a concern expressed by six women administrators, and they noted that it came from both men and women. For example, one woman stated, "For the past three or four years, we've been told that we have 'enough' women." One woman summed up this issue,

As a female senior administrator, I find myself constantly scrutinized for every appointment of females to leadership roles. Usually, this results in criticism. I consider this constraining phenomenon (precipitated by both males and females!) to be a form of discrimination. This would not be an issue for a male leader hiring men. I am not really free to exercise my

leadership judgement on matching the best person to a role in the college lest I get lots of flak that I am turning this place into a women's operation! [The reader is advised that this college has a 16.67% senior-level administrative gender equity rate.]

Finally, two respondents observed that people in colleges tend to hire persons like themselves. One woman noted that her CEO, two campus presidents, and a few deans were all white males and former athletic directors. Another respondent remarked, "If men have traditionally held an office or position, men seem more likely to replace them. It seems that our greatest challenge is breaking the mind sets of 'women's work' and a 'man's job.'"

Several women suggested additional gender equity strategies. The most prevalent was for boards of trustees to hire more female community college presidents. According to these women, the position of the college president/CEO regarding gender equity seemed to be the major influence in achieving gender parity. Another woman recommended that administrators need a "voice/group through which they could express their concerns; e.g., faculty senate, support staff council, student government. Looks like we are a group that has no representative body." Finally, a respondent summarized the situation from her perspective: "The question of equity and advancement of women who are qualified can be answered and addressed very easily if the people making administrative decisions just look harder."

Summary

The purpose of this study was to identify gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges. A review of the literature

resulted in the identification of 30 gender equity strategies for improving gender parity for women in higher education administration. A survey of a panel of 10 experts with a 100% return rate, validated the effectiveness of the strategies as well as their appropriateness for implementation in a community college setting.

A survey of Florida public community college women administrators rated the level of implementation of the 30 independent gender equity strategies. The respondents ($N = 677$, 63% response rate) were grouped by college gender equity achievement rate for representation of women in senior-level administrative positions. The mean scores indicated all strategies were evidenced to some degree overall and within each group of colleges.

Analysis of variance of the mean ratings was conducted. Statistically significant differences in college gender equity achievement groups at the .05 alpha level were identified for nine strategies. When the F ratio was statistically significant at the .05 level, the researcher used Tukey's Studentized Range Test to determine which of the group means differed significantly from one another.

As evidenced by the pattern of results, strategies 5, 7, 10, and 23 were most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration. Three strategies, 20, 24, and 25, contributed to improving gender equity status from the low- to mid-level, but seemed to have little or no further impact on gender parity for women. Strategies 11 and 17, while statistically significant, evidenced an inverse effect on gender equity status, seemingly indicating they did not contribute to gender parity for women.

Analysis of qualitative responses from the administrative women's survey data reinforced other survey items regarding their lack of knowledge of state

legislation and their college's gender equity goals or plans. The women's strongest concern was salary disparity between men and women in comparable positions. They referenced many examples of gender discrimination, inequities, and inconsistencies.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the results of the research study. Following an overview of the background of the research problem under investigation, the purpose, methodology, and findings of the study are summarized. Conclusions, implications for Florida public community colleges, and recommendations for further study are addressed.

Overview

Women have not attained gender parity in senior-level administrative positions in Florida's public community colleges (Regional Roundtable for Women in Educational Leadership, 1991). This is evidenced by the lower proportion of women and salary inequity of women and men in these positions. Overall, women represented 38% of all combined senior-level and instructional administrative positions in 1994-95 in Florida public community colleges, reported as an executive, administrative, and management (EAM) cohort (FL DCC, 1995b). They comprised 25% of full-time senior-level EAM positions (FL DCC, 1996). Females represented in the EAM cohort earned 95% of the comparable salaries of their male counterparts in 1994-95 (FL DCC, 1995c). Salary data for senior-level administrators were not available.

With its passage of the Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992), Florida mandated that the public community colleges

improve the status of women in administration with the goal of achieving gender parity. Since there has not been an action plan recommended in Florida, it would be helpful to specify successful gender equity strategies that the community colleges could consider.

The purpose of this study was to identify gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for women in senior-level administration at Florida public community colleges. Specifically, this study addressed the following research questions.

1. What are specific institutional gender equity strategies that address gender parity for women in higher education administration?
2. Are the identified institutional gender equity strategies implemented in the public community colleges in Florida?
3. Are there differences between the level of implementation of the identified individual institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity in senior-level executive, administrative, and management positions at Florida public community colleges?

A literature review investigated data and related research pertinent to the study. National and Florida descriptive statistics regarding the representation, salaries, and positional level of women in higher education were presented. Barriers to advancement and recommended institutional strategies to promote gender parity were discussed.

The research methodology of this study was divided into two phases. During the first phase, institutional gender equity strategies that promote gender parity for women administrators were identified from the relevant literature for

1980-1996. A panel of experts was surveyed by mail to specify the most effective and appropriate strategies for the community colleges to implement. The following 30 institutional gender equity strategies were identified and validated.

1. Make public statements that the status and representation of women in senior-level administration is a high priority of the community college board and president.
2. Assess campus climate to identify policies, practices, and attitudes that have a negative effect on women.
3. Sponsor workshops/programs that address ways to make the campus climate more supportive of women.
4. Appoint a high-level person with responsibility for advocacy for women on campus.
5. Establish a commission on the status of women.
6. Publish annual departmental data on the comparative status of professional women and men (numbers, position, rank, salaries, tenure).
7. Develop annual quantitative gender equity goals which address senior-level administrators.
8. Publish annual evaluation data regarding the achievement of gender equity goals.
9. Provide departmental incentives to promote achievement of gender equity goals; e.g., rewards and sanctions.
10. Include the achievement of gender equity goals in the evaluation of hiring managers.

11. Correct hiring and salary inequities as they are identified for women faculty, administrators, and staff.

12. Give specific attention to eliminating sexual harassment.

13. Adopt employment policies and practices that are family-responsive.

14. Provide assistance to dual-career couples.

15. Sponsor special professional development programs/opportunities within the college designed to identify and advance women in leadership roles.

16. Support participation in off-campus leadership development/fellowship programs for talented women; e.g., American Association of Women in Community Colleges (AAWCC) National Institute for Leadership Development, American Council on Education Fellows.

17. Grant financial support for employees to obtain credentials.

18. Grant release time for employees to obtain credentials.

19. Support participation of women in formal local and national networks; e.g., American Council on Education/National Identification Program (ACE/NIP); AAWCC.

20. Establish mentoring relationships for aspiring and potential women leaders.

21. Communicate the expectation that all administrative searches will yield qualified women candidates to interview.

22. Advertise job openings via media and networks to which women subscribe.

23. Personally recruit competent female candidates to apply for senior-level administrative positions (rather than waiting for them to apply).

24. Appoint women to acting positions when vacancies occur in senior-level administrative positions.

25. Sponsor administrative internships for potential women leaders.

26. Provide a search committee handbook with search guidelines which address gender diversity.

27. Assure that women are fairly represented on search committees.

28. Maintain a talent pool of prospective women candidates.

29. Advertise in job announcements that women are encouraged to apply.

30. Review candidates for ability and qualifications, rather than seniority.

The second phase of the study examined how each of the identified gender equity strategies had influenced the representation of senior-level EAM women at Florida public community colleges. A gender equity achievement rate was determined for each college by calculating the percentage of women in senior-level EAM positions during Fall semester 1994-95. The colleges were ranked from high to low by these rates. They were grouped by high (HGEA), medium (MGEA), and low (LGEA) gender equity achievement by subdividing the 28 colleges into three near equal groups: 9 colleges in each of the HGEA and LGEA groups, and 10 colleges in the MGEA group.

Women administrators were surveyed by mail to determine their assessment of the level of implementation of each strategy identified in phase 1. Their scores were averaged for HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA colleges. A one-way ANOVA was used to determine whether statistically significant differences at the .05 level occurred in the women administrators' mean ratings dependent on gender equity achievement level of the colleges. Tukey's Studentized Range Test

was used to determine which of the pairs was significantly different from each other at the .05 level of significance.

As evidenced by the pattern of results, strategies 5, 7, 10, and 23 were the most effective for promoting gender parity for community college women in senior-level administration. Three strategies, 20, 24, and 25, contributed to improving gender equity status from the low- to mid-level, but seemed to have little or no further impact on gender parity for women. Strategies 11 and 17, while statistically significant at the .05 level, seemingly evidenced an inverse effect on gender parity improvement.

Analysis of qualitative responses from the administrative women's survey data reinforced other survey items regarding their lack of knowledge of state legislation and their college's gender equity goals or plans. The women's strongest concern was salary disparity between men and women in comparable positions. They referenced many examples of gender discrimination, inequities, and inconsistencies.

Conclusions

The main focus of this study was to identify institutional gender equity strategies that are most effective for promoting gender parity for senior-level EAM women in Florida public community colleges. Statistically significant findings at the .05 level were discerned which are generalizable to the 28 public community colleges in Florida. The following major conclusions were drawn from the results of this investigation.

Gender Equity Information

The Florida public community college administrative women surveyed in this study had limited information about equity legislation (Appendix G, questionnaire item 4) as it applied to gender and the advancement of senior-level administrative women. They were generally uninformed about their college's gender equity goals and plans (Appendix G, questionnaire items 5 and 6). Most did not know plans were required, that they existed on their campuses, that gender equity goal evaluation data were collected and published, or that hiring managers were to be evaluated against achievement of gender equity goals. They rated strategies 6, publishing departmental gender data, and 8, publishing goal evaluation data, as implemented on a limited basis (overall mean scores were 2.06 and 2.32, respectively). These findings are consistent with the barrier reported in the literature and referred to by Shakeshaft (1989) as the "conspiracy of silence" (p. 21). She noted that accurate data regarding the numbers and positions of women have been difficult to obtain.

Strategies 6 and 8 relative to publication of gender equity data were not statistically significant at the .05 level as rated by the women administrators; the *p* value for these strategies was .12 and .09, respectively. The mean score for each strategy in the HGEA group was higher than for the MGEA, which was higher than for the LGEA. Two factors related to the composition of the sample may have resulted in measurement error and the lack of significance at the .05 level. First, there were 396 nonrespondents, 25 respondents with incomplete questionnaires, and 25 respondents who indicated that they were misclassified and too unfamiliar with the information requested to provide a fair assessment.

Second, some qualitative responses implied fear of reprisal as a rationale for refusal.

Both strategies 6 and 8 received moderately strong agreement for effectiveness from the expert panel (experts' mean score was 4.40 for both variables 6 and 8). Further, the qualitative comments frequently addressed the lack of information which was reinforced by their assessments for questionnaire items 4 through 6. Considering the assessments by the experts and the women administrators together with their qualitative comments, the researcher concluded that publishing gender equity data is an important strategy for influencing gender parity.

Deficit Strategies

Several of the institutional gender equity strategies were among those classified in the literature as "deficit strategies" (Moore, 1995). These strategies serve to prepare women for leadership roles and are based on the assumption that women are not qualified or ready for appointment to senior-level positions. These strategies were assessed by experts to be somewhat to moderately effective. None of these strategies received a mean score above 4.50 by the expert panel. Such strategies included mentoring, acting positions, and administrative internships, all of which were statistically significant at the .05 level for contributing to improving gender equity rates from low- to mid-level status. However, they did not demonstrate significant differences for advancement to the HGEA group, or result in gender parity.

Another deficit strategy, 17, support for women to earn credentials, was statistically significant at the .05 level, but seemed to have an inverse effect on

gender parity. This could be explained by recognizing that HGEA colleges probably had an adequate number of women administrative candidates with doctoral degrees.

Although these deficit-type strategies were rated as moderately implemented, they were not generally effective for promoting gender parity for women. As demonstrated by the pattern of results, they may be valuable for helping an institution to begin the process of organizational change supportive of gender equity. However, they fall short of significantly affecting the status of senior-level administrative women. As described by Moore (1995), deficit strategies represent symbolic appeasement more than understanding and correcting the system. National and Florida data documented that qualified women are available in sufficient numbers to fill senior-level administrative positions (FL PEPC, 1996; Knopp, 1995; Otinger & Sikula, 1993). Women do not necessarily need skill development and credentialing. These strategies best serve to warm the culture to the lack of women in strategic positions, but they will not likely penetrate the artificial barrier, often referred to as the "glass ceiling" (Rigaux, 1995). One respondent commented, "The question of equity and advancement of women who are qualified can be answered very easily if the people making administrative decisions just look harder."

Effective Strategies

"Looking harder" was a paraphrase of strategy 23, targeted recruitment (Swoboda, 1993; Vaughan, 1990). It was one of four strategies which demonstrated a statistically significant difference at the .05 level between HGEA and LGEA colleges, indicating improvement toward gender equity and

achievement of gender parity. It was also rated as the most effective strategy by the expert panel ($M = 4.80$). Comparable to strategy 23, strategy 5, commission on the status of women, seemed to contribute positively to improvement in gender parity. According to the findings, strategies 7, setting gender equity goals, and 10, evaluating hiring managers against achievement of these goals, had the strongest impact on gender parity, when comparing the women's ratings at HGEA and LGEA colleges. Considering the limited level of implementation of these strategies combined with the women's qualitative responses, two conclusions were made. First, since the plans were filed with the Division of Community Colleges, gender equity goals were set at each college; but most women were unaware of them, indicating they were not widely publicized. Second, evaluating hiring managers against these goals was also required by statute (Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act, 1992). Either this had not been occurring, or again most women were unaware. Since most administrators were also hiring managers, it seemed likely that the strategy was implemented on a very limited basis, as the women indicated.

Moore (1995) advised that higher education institutions need to design a better future for gender-equitable organizations that are a permanent part of the organizational culture. This would include equal opportunity, access, and comparable worth. She emphasized that this includes sharing the facts, the desired outcomes, and holding people accountable for the outcomes, not merely the process. Setting gender equity goals and evaluating hiring managers against the outcomes were rated as significant strategies at the .05 level and were indicative of gender-equitable organizations by design.

Likewise, colleges that employ targeted recruitment (strategy 23) are also consistent with gender-equitable organizations. This strategy is indicative of a culture that has a vision for and seeks out gender parity for women. Further, sponsoring a commission on the status of women is another strategy that supports a gender-equitable culture, addresses resistance and competing claims, and stimulates change when the system does not respond.

The four strategies which evidenced significant differences in HGEA and LGEA colleges support the gender-equitable organization. The pattern of results verify recommendations from the literature and requirements from state statute.

Another strategy that was statistically significant, but seemingly evidenced an inverse effect on gender parity, was strategy 11, correcting inequities. The strong qualitative comments regarding salary inequities may be a partial explanation for this finding. In addition, without the publication of actual gender equity data, the women were making judgments based on intuition. The overall mean score of 2.51 indicated the women believed that this strategy was implemented on a limited basis. Women at HGEA and MGEA colleges (mean scores were 2.57 and 2.38, respectively) did not rate this strategy as highly as women at LGEA colleges (mean score was 2.75). A plausible explanation may be that women at HGEA and MGEA colleges may have sensed that this strategy was substantially accomplished and therefore, further implementation was less necessary. However, women at LGEA colleges who experienced less gender equity may have been more aware of the need for and implementation of the strategy. In fact, one qualitative response verified this interpretation: "Some strategies refer to things that are no longer needed (at least at this institution) to

assure that women get fair treatment." Further, the reader is advised that college 16 represented 15.4% of the n in the MGEA group, which may have also accounted for the lower mean score. Additionally, the gender equity rates were set by the proportion of women in senior-level administrative positions and did not include salary data. Therefore, it is also possible that women at HGEA colleges, although better represented, still experienced salary disparity.

Furthermore, strategy 11, correcting inequities, had an average rating above 4.50 by the expert panel for both effectiveness and appropriateness. Considering the experts' assessment and the significance of the strategy at the .05 level, the researcher concluded that correcting inequities is an important strategy for promoting gender parity for senior-level community college EAMs.

Classification of Personnel

The gender data published for senior-level administration erroneously included Annual Personnel Report (APR) classifications 01 and 03, and cited a 38% women's representation rate (FL DCC, 1995b). By the Division of Community College's definition, senior-level administrators were exclusively 01, accounting for an actual representation rate of 25% women among senior-level EAMs (FL DCC, 1996). Publication of both 01 and 03 classifications for senior-level EAMs gives the false impression that gender equity among this group is more advanced than in actuality. This is suggestive of an inadvertent "conspiracy of silence," as described by Shakeshaft (1989, p. 21).

The response rate to the administrative survey was satisfactory. It may have been higher if a more definitive community college personnel classification system had been implemented. Classification 06 included persons who were

administrative assistants, clerical, and technical staff. The classification system did not have an appropriate level for these positions. A number of questionnaires ($n = 25$) were returned incomplete and were excluded. The respondents noted that they were unfamiliar with the information requested, as they were neither administrative nor professional staff. However, they were classified as such.

There was also some inconsistency with how the community colleges interpreted and applied the classification definitions, resulting in misclassification of some persons. This was addressed in chapter 1 as a limitation of the study. Furthermore, some qualitative comments indicated that reclassification upward was used to accommodate higher salaries for men and downward to justify appointing women to comparable positions with lower salaries.

Salary Disparity

Salary data available from the Florida Division of Community Colleges were represented incrementally and may have presented an incomplete evaluation of comparable salaries by gender. The data from the Division documented a 95% comparable salary rate for women administrators with combined APR 01 and 03 classifications. The data are comparable in the sense that they are within the same incremental salary level. It is difficult to compare salaries by gender within a range, since one does not know where within the range each gender is represented. Data segmented for classification 01 only (senior-level EAMs) were not available. Analysis of qualitative responses from the administrative women indicated that salary disparity was a major concern.

Implications

The results of this study suggest the following institutional gender equity strategies as effective components of an overall plan to achieve gender parity for senior-level EAM women in Florida public community colleges.

1. Setting and publicizing gender equity goals.
2. Evaluating hiring managers against achievement of gender equity goals.
3. Utilizing targeted recruitment.
4. Establishing a commission on the status of women.

The following additional strategies seem to be important influencers for achieving gender equity.

5. Correcting hiring and salary inequities.
6. Publicizing gender equity data.

Community colleges for which gender parity is nonexistent or very limited may find deficit strategies helpful as part of their overall plan. These strategies include support for credentialing, leadership development, mentoring, internships, and acting positions. However, colleges are cautioned that these strategies do not seem to foster the cultural change required for achieving gender parity. Therefore, deficit strategies should not be the primary focus.

The findings of this study indicate that community colleges need to regularly publicize and distribute information about goals, plans, and outcomes regarding gender equity. Complete and accurate information is essential to dispel rumors and provide the basis for correct assessments. Knowledge of gender equity information is a factor that seems to influence gender equity achievement.

Lack of information was frequently cited as a major concern of the women administrators.

Based on the findings of the study, the community college personnel classification system may need review with attention to senior-level (APR classification 01) and technical and administrative assistant staff (currently part of classification 06). Community college staff would benefit from education relative to personnel definitions to assure more accurate and equitable classifications. The Community College System APR should reflect data for senior-level administrators separate from other administrative classifications to be in full compliance with law.

Further, the findings suggest salary data should be reported by the Division of Community Colleges segmented for classification 01 by college, as required by statute. To gain an accurate assessment, it may be more helpful to report comparable median salary information adjusted for years of service for each major position. These positions include CEO, campus president, provost, chief academic officer, chief financial officer, chief student affairs officer, and dean. Salary disparities identified need to be investigated and addressed.

Recommendations

Results of this study suggested that recommendations for further inquiry are warranted. The following research studies are recommended as they relate to institutional gender equity strategies that are effective for promoting gender parity for women senior-level administrators.

1. A study that looks in-depth at the significant institutional gender equity strategies identified in this study for promoting gender parity for women would be a natural extension of the present study. This could be done by conducting qualitative case studies with senior-level women administrators at HGEA, MGEA, and LGEA community colleges.

2. The population parameters of this study could be modified to expand the results and generalizability. For example, this study provided a thorough analysis of the assessment of administrative women regarding the level of implementation of identified institutional gender equity strategies. An assessment by men administrators would also be helpful.

Further, examinations of the effects of institutional gender equity strategies at other types of higher education institutions would be beneficial. A study could be undertaken for Florida's state universities, community colleges and universities in other states, and private colleges and universities.

This study should also be replicated after establishing a more finite classification of persons in the existing 06 APR category. If this is not possible, then the study could be replicated using APR classifications 01 and 03 only, since these categories both represent administrative classifications only.

Finally, a national sample of colleges in states with gender equity legislation could be first stratified by size and then classified by gender equity achievement level. Such stratified sampling would adjust for the variation in college size of this study.

3. Studies that revise the research variables would provide important new data about institutional gender equity strategies. This research treated each

strategy as an independent variable. A factor analytical study which groups the individual strategies into categories could be conducted. These categories could be further investigated for significant differences relative to achievement of gender parity.

Further, this study could be broadened by expanding the calculation of college gender equity achievement rate to include both representation and salary data for senior-level EAM women. A change in the unit of analysis from the individual administrator to the college as a whole may reveal different patterns of significant differences than the analysis of the individual data.

4. Longitudinal studies of the impact of the Community College System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) and the State University System Equity Accountability Program Act (1992) should be conducted. Such research could be compared between systems in Florida and systems in other states that have enacted similar legislation. Both Florida equity programs address ethnic, as well as gender, equity for senior-level administration and tenured faculty. Research investigating the effectiveness of the strategies identified in this study could be applied to achievement of ethnic equity in both higher education systems. Further, the institutional role in achievement of gender and ethnic equity for tenured faculty should be investigated.

5. Finally, a study that investigates gender equity from the perspective of organizational culture rather than goals and strategies is recommended. High gender equity achieving (HGEA) colleges should be examined by case study to determine what creative, new ways to achieve gender parity the leadership team has invented. The organization that has a clear vision and strong commitment to

equity may find its own solutions. It would be beneficial to understand how that vision is created, communicated, and evolves into a gender-equitable organization.

APPENDIX A
COMMUNITY COLLEGE SYSTEM EQUITY ACCOUNTABILITY PROGRAM

[Florida Statute] 240.3355 Community College System equity accountability program.--

(1) No later than May 1, 1993, each community college annual equity update plan must include a plan for increasing the number of women and minorities in senior-level administrative positions, for increasing the number of women and minorities in ranked faculty positions, and for increasing the number of women and minorities who have attained continuing-contract status. The plan must include specific measurable goals and objectives, specific strategies for accomplishing these goals and objectives, and a time period for accomplishing these goals and objectives. The goals shall be reviewed and recommended by the State Board of Community Colleges as appropriate.

(2)(a) On May 1 of each year, each community college president shall submit the annual equity update to the Executive Director of the State Board of Community Colleges. The equity update must show the number of deans, associates, assistant deans, vice presidents, associate and assistant presidents, provosts, legal counsel, and similar administrative positions which were filled in the previous 12-month period. Administrative positions include faculty positions that, in whole or in part, are defined as academic administration by rule and positions that are defined as administrative positions under the Community College System's classification of occupational groupings.

(b) The report must show the following information for those positions including, but not limited to:

1. Job classification title;
2. Gender;
3. Ethnicity;
4. Appointment status;
5. Salary information including the salary at which the individual was hired compared to the salary range for the respective position and to other employees in the same job title classification.
6. Other comparative information including, but not limited to, composite information regarding the total number of positions within the particular job title classification for the community college by race, gender, and salary range compared to the number of new hires;
7. The gender and ethnic composition of the selection committee for each vacancy;

8. Steps taken to develop a diverse pool of candidates for each vacancy;
and
9. An assessment of the community college's accomplishment of annual goals and of long-range goals for increasing the number of women and minorities in senior-level administrative positions.

(c) Each community college's equity accountability report must also include:

1. The requirements for receiving a continuing contract;
2. The gender and ethnic composition of the committees that review continuing-contract recommendations;
3. The enhancement of continuing contract opportunities for women and minority faculty; and
4. Written documentation of feedback 'on the annual progress towards achievement of continuing-contract status by women and minorities.

(3) Community college presidents and the heads of each major administrative division shall be evaluated annually on the progress made toward meeting the goals and objectives of the equity update plan.

(a) The community college presidents shall annually evaluate each department chairperson, dean, and vice president in achieving the annual and long-term goals and objectives. Annual budget allocations for positions and funding must take into consideration this evaluation.

(b) Beginning January 1994, community college district boards of trustees shall annually evaluate the performance of the community college presidents in achieving the annual and long-term goals and objectives.

(c) The State Board of Community Colleges shall submit an equity progress report to the Legislature and the State Board of Education on or before December 1 of each year.

(4) Subject to available funding, the Legislature shall provide an annual appropriation to be allocated to the department managers in recognition of the attainment of the equity goals and objectives.

History.--s. 28, ch. 92-321 (Laws of Florida, 1992, pp. 3245-3246).

*Note.--The word "on" was substituted by the editors for the word "to" [in the original law s. 28, ch. 92-321].

Note. From 1992 Supplement to Florida Statutes 1991, pp. 685-686.

Note. s. 7, ch. 95-143 (Laws of Florida, 1995, pp. 134-135) amended paragraph (c) of subsection (2) of section 240.3355, Florida Statutes, to correct an apparent error. Paragraph (c) of subsection (2) in the original law (s. 28, ch. 92-321) erroneously represented it as paragraph (b) of subsection (2). The language of the law continued.

APPENDIX B
FLORIDA COMMUNITY COLLEGES
October, 1995

BREVARD COMMUNITY
COLLEGE
1519 Clearlake Road
Cocoa, FL 32922-6597
Maxwell C. King, President
(Brevard County)
(407) 632-1111

BROWARD COMMUNITY
COLLEGE
225 East Las Olas Boulevard
Fort Lauderdale, FL 33301
Willis N. Holcombe, President
(Broward County)
(305) 761-7400

CENTRAL FLORIDA COMMUNITY
COLLEGE
P. O. BOX 1388
Ocala, FL 32678-1388
William J. Campion, President
(Marion, Citrus, Levy Counties)
(904) 237-2111

CHIPOLA JUNIOR COLLEGE
3094 Indian Circle
Marianna, FL 32446-2053
H. Dale O'Daniel, President
(Jackson, Calhoun, Holmes, Liberty,
Washington Counties)
(904) 526-2761

DAYTONA BEACH COMMUNITY
COLLEGE
P. O. Box 2811
Daytona Beach, FL 32120-2811
Phillip R. Day, President
(Volusia, Flagler Counties)
(904) 255-8131

EDISON COMMUNITY COLLEGE
P. O. Box 60210
Fort Myers, FL 33906-6210
Kenneth P. Walker, President
(Lee, Charlotte, Collier, Glades,
Hendry Counties)
(813) 489-9300

FLORIDA COMMUNITY COLLEGE
AT JACKSONVILLE
501 West State Street
Jacksonville, FL 32202-4030
Charles C. Spence, President
(Duval, Nassau Counties)
(904) 632-3000

FLORIDA KEYS COMMUNITY
COLLEGE
5901 West College Road
Key West, FL 33040
William A. Seeker, President
(Monroe County)
(305) 296-9081

**GULF COAST COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

5230 West Highway 98
Panama City, FL 32401-1044
Robert L. McSpadden, President
(Bay, Franklin, Gulf Counties)
(904) 769-1551

**HILLSBOROUGH COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

P. O. Box 31127
Tampa, FL 33631-3127
Andreas A. Paloumpis, President
(Hillsborough County)
(813) 253-7000

**INDIAN RIVER COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

3209 Virginia Avenue
Fort Pierce, FL 34981-5599
Edwin R. Massey, President
(St. Lucie, Indian River, Martin,
Okeechobee Counties)
(407) 462-4700

**LAKE CITY COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

Route 19, Box 1030
Lake City, FL 32305
Muriel Kay Heimer, President
(Columbia, Baker, Dixie, Gilchrist,
Union Counties)
(904) 752-1822

**LAKE-SUMTER COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

9501 U.S. Highway 441, South
Leesburg, FL 34788-8751
Robert W. Westrick, President
(Lake, Sumter Counties)
(904) 787-3747

**MANATEE COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

P. O. Box 1849
Bradenton, FL 34206-1849
Stephen J. Korcheck, President
(Manatee, Sarasota Counties)
(813) 755-1511

**MIAMI-DADE COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

300 N.E. Second Avenue
Miami, FL 33132-2297
Eduardo J. Padron, President
(Dade County)
(305) 237-3000

**NORTH FLORIDA COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

1000 Turner Davis Drive
Madison, FL 32340
William O. Brazil, Interim President
(Madison, Hamilton, Jefferson,
Lafayette, Suwannee, Taylor
Counties)
(904) 973-2288

**OKALOOSA-WALTON
COMMUNITY COLLEGE**

100 College Boulevard
Niceville, FL 32578
James R. Richburg, President
(Okaloosa, Walton Counties)
(904) 678-5111

**PALM BEACH COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

4200 Congress Avenue
Lake Worth, FL 33461-4796
Edward M. Eissey, President
(Palm Beach County)
(407) 439-8000

**PASCO-HERNANDO COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

36727 Blanton Road
Dade City, FL 33525-7599
Robert W. Judson, Jr., President
(Hernando, Pasco Counties)
(904) 567-6701

PENSACOLA JUNIOR COLLEGE

1000 College Boulevard
Pensacola, FL 32504-8998
Horace E. Hartsell, President
(Escambia, Santa Rosa Counties)
(904) 484-1000

POLK COMMUNITY COLLEGE

999 Avenue H, N.E.
Winter Haven, FL 33881-4299
Maryly VanLeer Peck, President
(Polk County)
(941) 297-1000

**ST. JOHNS RIVER COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

5001 St. Johns Avenue
Palatka, FL 32177-3897
Robert L. McLendon, Jr., President
(Putnam, Clay, St. Johns Counties)
(904) 328-1571

**ST. PETERSBURG JUNIOR
COLLEGE**

P. O. Box 13489
St. Petersburg, FL 33733-3489
Carl M. Kuttler, Jr., President
(Pinellas County)
(813) 341-3600

**SANTA FE COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

3000 N.W. 83rd Street
Gainesville, FL 32606
Lawrence W. Tyree, President
(Alachua, Bradford Counties)
(904) 395-5000

**SEMINOLE COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

100 Weldon Boulevard
Sanford, FL 32773-6199
Earl S. Weldon, President
(Seminole County)
(407) 323-1450

**SOUTH FLORIDA COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

600 West College Drive
Avon Park, FL 33825-9399
Catherine P. Cornelius, President
(Highlands, DeSoto, Hardee
Counties)
(813) 453-6661

**TALLAHASSEE COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

444 Appleyard Drive
Tallahassee, FL 32304-2895
T. K. Wetherell, President
(Leon, Gadsden, Wakulla Counties)
(904) 922-8244

**VALENCIA COMMUNITY
COLLEGE**

P. O. Box 3028
Orlando, FL 32802-3028
Paul C. Gianini, Jr., President
(Orange, Osceola Counties)
(407) 299-5000

Source: Florida Division of Community Colleges (1995, October), Report for the Florida Community College System: The Fact Book. Tallahassee: Department of Education.

APPENDIX C
TRANSMITTAL LETTER FOR PANEL OF EXPERTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

February 27, 1996

Dear Gender Equity Expert:

In 1992, Florida public community colleges received a mandate to improve the representation and salary equity of women in senior-level administration. Part of the law specifies that the colleges develop gender equity plans to achieve gender parity. However, there is no general agreement in Florida regarding what the most effective strategies would be to specify in the local plans for implementation.

You are one of a small group of national experts being asked to give your assessment regarding what gender equity strategies would be most effective and appropriate for promoting gender parity for senior-level women administrators in higher education. Your opinions will then be used to validate a list of institutional gender equity strategies to be included in a survey of Florida community college women administrators. In order that the strategies accurately reflect the opinions of experts, it is important that each questionnaire be returned.

This study is both a National Institute for Leadership Development LEADERS project and a dissertation for the doctoral degree from the University of Florida.

You may be assured that your name, position, and agency will not be identified individually in any way with the follow-up survey or results of the study. The results of this research will be made available to Florida community college leaders. I would be glad to share them with you, as well. You may receive a summary of results by writing "copy of results requested" on the back of the return envelope, and printing your name and address below it.

I would be most happy to answer any questions you might have. You may reach me by telephone at (407) 328-2122, Internet: <gpickar@ipo.seminole.cc.fl.us> and FAX: (407) 328-2128.

Thank you in advance for your prompt reply and assistance.

Sincerely yours,

Gloria Pickar
Dean of Open Campus
Seminole Community College

APPENDIX D
PANEL OF EXPERTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Institutional Gender Equity Strategies:
An Assessment of Resource Expert Opinions

Introduction:

In an effort to promote the advancement of women to higher education senior-level administrative positions, community college administrative women will be surveyed. The purpose of that survey will be to determine institutional gender equity strategies that are significantly related to gender parity for women in senior-level administrative positions in Florida public community colleges.

In preparation for conducting the administrative survey described above, it is important that experts validate the list of institutional gender equity strategies identified in the relevant literature (1980-96). Your participation in this phase of the survey design is completely VOLUNTARY. You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. Your answers will be kept confidential.

Directions:

On the following pages are some strategies that higher education institutions implement to promote gender parity for women in senior-level administrative positions. Please indicate how effective or ineffective you think each strategy is by circling the number beside it on the EFFECTIVENESS scale. An effective strategy would be one that is an essential component of an overall gender equity plan to promote women. If you think that it is very effective, circle a number toward the right. If you think that it is very ineffective, circle one toward the left, and if you think it is someplace in between, circle a number from the middle range that indicates your opinion.

Another important part of identifying effective institutional strategies is to determine if they are appropriate for implementation in a particular setting. Please indicate if you think that the strategies that follow would be appropriate to implement in a community college setting. If you think that the strategy is very appropriate, circle a number from the right side of the APPROPRIATENESS scale. If you think that it is very inappropriate, circle a number from the left, and if you think that the appropriateness is somewhere in between these extremes, circle a number someplace in the middle of the scale to show your opinion.

As part of an overall gender equity plan, how effective is each strategy for promoting gender parity for senior-level women administrators?
(Circle one number.)

Very In- effective	1	2	3	4	5	Very Effective
-----------------------	---	---	---	---	---	-------------------

How appropriate is each strategy for implementation in a community college setting?
(Circle one number.)

Very In- appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	Very Appropriate
-------------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---------------------

Gender Equity Strategies:

S1 Make public statements that the status and representation of women in senior-level administration is a high priority of the community college board and president

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

S2 Assess campus climate to identify policies, practices, and attitudes that have a negative effect on women

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

S3 Sponsor workshops/programs that address ways to make the campus climate more supportive of women

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

S4 Appoint a high-level person with responsibility for advocacy for women on campus

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Very In- effective					Very Effective				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Very In- appropriate					Very Appropriate				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5	S5	Establish a commission on the status of women	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S6	Publish annual departmental data on the comparative status of professional women and men (numbers, position, rank, salaries, tenure) . . .	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S7	Develop annual quantitative gender equity goals which address senior-level administrators	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S8	Publish annual evaluation data regarding the achievement of gender equity goals	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S9	Provide departmental incentives to promote achievement of gender equity goals; e.g., rewards and sanctions	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S10	Include achievement of gender equity goals in the evaluation of hiring managers	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S11	Correct hiring and salary inequities as they are identified for women faculty, administrators, and staff	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S12	Give specific attention to eliminating sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5

Very In- effective	Very Effective			
	1	2	3	4

Very In- appropriate	Very Appropriate			
	1	2	3	4

1	2	3	4	5	S13 Adopt employment policies and practices that are family-responsive	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S14 Provide assistance to dual-career couples	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S15 Sponsor special professional development programs/opportunities within the college designed to identify and advance women in leadership roles	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S16 Support participation in off-campus leadership development/fellowship programs for talented women; e.g., AAWCC National Institute for Leadership Development, American Council on Education Fellows	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S17 Grant financial support for employees to obtain credentials; e.g., earned doctorate	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S18 Grant release time for employees to obtain credentials	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S19 Support participation of women in formal local and national networks; e.g., American Council on Education/National Identification Program (ACE/NIP); AAWCC	1	2	3	4	5

Very In- effective					Very Effective				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Very In- appropriate					Very Appropriate				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5	S20 Establish mentoring relationships for aspiring and potential women leaders					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S21 Communicate the expectation that all administrative searches will yield qualified women candidates to interview					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S22 Advertise job openings via media and networks to which women subscribe					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S23 Personally recruit competent female candidates to apply for senior-level administrative positions (rather than waiting for them to apply)					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S24 Appoint women to "acting" positions when vacancies occur in senior-level administrative positions					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S25 Sponsor administrative internships for potential women leaders					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S26 Provide a search committee handbook with search guidelines which address gender diversity					1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	S27 Assure that women are fairly represented on search committees					1	2	3	4	5

Very In- effective	Effective	Very
1	2	3
4	5	

Very In- appropriate	Appropriate	Very
1	2	3
4	5	

S28 Maintain a talent pool of prospective women

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	-------	---	---	---	---	---

S29 Advertise in job announcements that "women

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	-------	---	---	---	---	---

S30 Review candidates for ability and qualifications,

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	-------	---	---	---	---	---

Is there anything else that you would like to say regarding gender equity and the advancement of women, or about this survey instrument? Please use this space for that purpose.

Your contribution to this effort is appreciated. If you would like a summary of the results of the study, please print your name and address on the back of the return envelope.

APPENDIX E
SURVEY ANNOUNCEMENT LETTER

March 4, 1996

Dear Community College Administrator or Professional Staff Member:

Within the next few days, you will receive a request from me to complete an important and brief questionnaire. As a community college woman administrator or professional staff member, your valuable input is needed to identify effective institutional gender equity strategies to promote women. The survey will ask you to assess the degree to which specific strategies are in place at your community college.

The survey results will be made available to community college leaders and policy makers. I will be glad to send you a copy as well.

I would greatly appreciate your taking the few minutes necessary to complete and return your questionnaire as soon as it arrives. As a community college administrator myself, I know how busy you are. Thank you in advance for your help.

Sincerely yours,

Gloria Pickar
Dean of Open Campus
Seminole Community College

APPENDIX F
TRANSMITTAL LETTER FOR ADMINISTRATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

March 11, 1996

Dear Community College Administrator or Professional Staff Member:

In 1992, Florida public community colleges received a mandate to improve the representation and salary equity of women in senior-level administration. Part of the law specifies that the colleges must develop gender equity plans to achieve gender parity. However, there is no general agreement in Florida regarding what the most effective strategies would be to specify in the local plans. I am conducting a study to determine the relationship between institutional gender equity strategies and gender parity for women in senior-level community college administration.

This study is both a National Institute for Leadership Development LEADERS project and my dissertation for the doctoral degree from the University of Florida.

As a woman community college administrator or professional staff member, you are being asked to give your assessment of the extent to which specific institutional gender equity strategies are implemented at your college. You have been identified from the Florida Division of Community Colleges' Annual Personnel Report. In order that the results will truly represent the thinking of women community college administrative and professional staff throughout Florida, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned. Completing this questionnaire will take no more than 15 minutes of your time.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that I may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire or identified with the results.

The results of this research will be made available to community college leaders. You may receive a summary of results by writing "copy of results requested" on the back of the return envelope, and printing your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

I would be most happy to answer any questions you have. You may reach me by telephone at (407) 328-2122. Internet <gpickar@ipo.seminole.cc.fl.us>, or FAX (407) 328-2128.

As a community college administrator myself, I know how busy you are. Thank you in advance for your time and information.

Sincerely yours,

Gloria Pickar
Dean of Open Campus
Seminole Community College

APPENDIX G

ADMINISTRATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Institutional Gender Equity Strategies: Survey of Community College Administrative and Professional Staff Women

Introduction:

In an effort to promote the advancement of women in senior-level administrative positions, this survey of Florida public community college administrative and professional staff women is being conducted. The purpose of this study is to determine institutional gender equity strategies that are significantly related to gender parity for women in senior-level administrative positions in Florida public community colleges.

Your participation in this survey is completely VOLUNTARY. You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. However, in order to gather a fair assessment of the strategies employed, it is important that as many full-time administrative and professional staff women as possible respond to the survey. Please mark the response that best represents your experiences in your current position at your community college. Your answers will be kept confidential.

Please note that this questionnaire is printed front and back.

Section 1

Directions: The first section of this questionnaire asks demographic questions. Please circle the number of your answer.

1. Are you currently employed full-time at your college?
 - 1 Yes
 - 2 No

(If no) This study only applies to persons employed full time. Therefore, you do not need to complete the remainder of the questionnaire. Please return your questionnaire in the accompanying return envelope.

2. What is your gender?
 - 1 Female
 - 2 Male

(If male) This study only applies to women. Therefore, you do not need to complete the remainder of the questionnaire. Please return your questionnaire in the accompanying return envelope.

Section 2

Directions: Listed below are some institutional gender equity strategies that are designed to promote gender parity for women in senior-level administrative positions. Please indicate the extent to which each strategy is implemented at your college by circling a number beside it. If you think that the strategy is fully implemented, circle a number toward the right. If you think that the strategy is not implemented at your college, circle a number toward the left. Circle a number someplace in between if you think that it is partially implemented.

How much, if at all, is
each strategy implemented
at your community college?
(Circle one number.)

Not Imple- mented	Fully Imple- mented		
1	2	3	4	5

3. Gender Equity Strategies:

- S1 Make public statements that the status and representation of women in senior-level administration is a high priority of the community college board and president 1 2 3 4 5
- S2 Assess campus climate to identify policies, practices, and attitudes that have a negative effect on women 1 2 3 4 5
- S3 Sponsor workshops/programs that address ways to make the campus climate more supportive of women 1 2 3 4 5
- S4 Appoint a high-level person with responsibility for advocacy for women on campus 1 2 3 4 5
- S5 Establish a commission on the status of women 1 2 3 4 5
- S6 Publish annual departmental data on the comparative status of professional women and men (numbers, position, rank, salaries, tenure) 1 2 3 4 5

	Not Imple- mented					Fully Imple- mented				
	1	2	3	4	5					
S7 Develop annual quantitative gender equity goals which address senior-level administrators	1	2	3	4	5					
S8 Publish annual evaluation data regarding the achievement of gender equity goals	1	2	3	4	5					
S9 Provide departmental incentives to promote achievement of gender equity goals; e.g., rewards and sanctions	1	2	3	4	5					
S10 Include the achievement of gender equity goals in the evaluation of hiring managers	1	2	3	4	5					
S11 Correct hiring and salary inequities as they are identified for women faculty, administrators, and staff	1	2	3	4	5					
S12 Give specific attention to eliminating sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5					
S13 Adopt employment policies and practices that are family-responsive	1	2	3	4	5					
S14 Provide assistance to dual-career couples	1	2	3	4	5					
S15 Sponsor special professional development programs/opportunities within the college designed to identify and advance women in leadership roles	1	2	3	4	5					
S16 Support participation in off-campus leadership development/fellowship programs for talented women; e.g., AAWCC National Institute for Leadership Development, American Council on Education Fellows	1	2	3	4	5					

	Not Imple- mented			Fully Imple- mented	
	1	2	3	4	5
S17 Grant financial support for employees to obtain credentials; e.g., earned doctorate	1	2	3	4	5
S18 Grant release time for employees to obtain credentials	1	2	3	4	5
S19 Support participation of women in formal local and national networks; e.g., American Council on Education/ National Identification Program (ACE/NIP); AAWCC	1	2	3	4	5
S20 Establish mentoring relationships for aspiring and potential women leaders	1	2	3	4	5
S21 Communicate the expectation that all administrative searches will yield qualified women candidates to interview	1	2	3	4	5
S22 Advertise job openings via media and networks to which women subscribe	1	2	3	4	5
S23 Personally recruit competent female candidates to apply for senior-level administrative positions (rather than waiting for them to apply)	1	2	3	4	5
S24 Appoint women to acting positions when vacancies occur in senior-level administrative positions	1	2	3	4	5
S25 Sponsor administrative internships for potential women leaders	1	2	3	4	5
S26 Provide a search committee handbook with search guidelines which address gender diversity	1	2	3	4	5

Not Imple- mented	Fully Imple- mented		
1	2	3	4	5

- S27 Assure than women are fairly repre-
sented on search committees 1 2 3 4 5
- S28 Maintain a talent pool of prospective
women candidates 1 2 3 4 5
- S29 Advertise in job announcements that
women are encouraged to apply 1 2 3 4 5
- S30 Review candidates for ability and
qualifications, rather than seniority 1 2 3 4 5

Section 3

Directions: Another important part of this study is determining your understanding of the gender equity plan at your college. Please circle the number of your answer.

- How familiar are you with the 1992 Florida gender equity legislation that requires each community college to set gender equity goals and write a gender equity plan to improve gender parity for professional women?
 - Unfamiliar
 - Vaguely Familiar
 - Familiar
 - Very Familiar
- How familiar are you with the gender parity goals set by your college?
 - Unfamiliar
 - Vaguely Familiar
 - Familiar
 - Very Familiar
- Have you seen or received a copy of the gender equity plan for your college?
 - Yes
 - No
 - Don't Know

Section 4

Directions: The Florida Division of Community Colleges defines a senior-level administrator as a person who exercises primary collegewide responsibility for

the management of an institution. Assignments must require the performance of work directly related to management policies and require the incumbent to customarily and regularly exercise discretion, independent judgement, and to direct the work of major divisions of college employees and functions. Examples of positions included in this category are president, vice president, provost (if collegewide authority), and dean (if the dean reports directly to the president).

7. According to this definition, are you a senior-level administrator at your college?
 - 1 Yes
 - 2 No
8. Is there anything else you would like to tell me regarding gender equity and the advancement of women in community college administration? Please use this space for that purpose.

Your contribution to this effort is appreciated. If you would like a summary of results, please print "Copy of Results Requested" followed by your name and address on the back of the return envelope (NOT on this questionnaire).

APPENDIX H
FIRST FOLLOW-UP LETTER FOR ADMINISTRATORS' SURVEY

March 25, 1996

Dear Community College Administrator or Professional Staff Member:

Two weeks ago, a questionnaire seeking your assessment of the implementation of institutional gender equity strategies at your college was mailed to you. The questionnaire is titled: "Institutional Gender Equity Strategies: Survey of Community College Administrative and Professional Staff Women." Your name was identified from the Florida Division of Community Colleges Annual Personnel Report as a woman community college administrator or professional staff person.

If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. I am especially grateful for your help because I believe that your response will be used by community college leaders and policy makers interested in advancing women.

If you did not receive a questionnaire, or if it was misplaced, please contact me and I will get another one in the mail to you today: Office (407) 328-2122 or Suncom 353-2122, Internet <gpickar@ipo.seminole.cc.fl.us>, or FAX (407) 328-2128.

Sincerely yours,

Gloria Pickar
Dean of Open Campus
Seminole Community College

APPENDIX I
SECOND FOLLOW-UP LETTER FOR ADMINISTRATORS' SURVEY

March 29, 1996

Dear Community College Administrator or Professional Staff Member:

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your assessment of the implementation of institutional gender equity strategies to advance women at your college. As of today I have not received your completed questionnaire.

I have undertaken this research to support the community colleges in their strategic role in complying with equity legislation which requires them to set gender equity goals and develop plans to achieve gender parity for professional women. This study will identify which institutional strategies are significantly related to achievement of gender parity for senior-level women administrators.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of this study. Your name was identified from the Division of Community Colleges Annual Personnel Report as a woman community college administrator or professional staff person. In order for the results of this study to be truly representative of the assessments of all administrative or professional staff women, it is essential that each person identified return her questionnaire.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a copy is enclosed. Please telephone me with any questions at (407) 328-2122 or Suncom 353-2122. You may also reach me by Internet <gpickar@ipo.seminole.cc.fl.us> or by FAX at (407) 328-2128 or Suncom FAX 353-2128.

Your cooperation and time are greatly appreciated. Please respond today. The return deadline is Monday, April 8.

Sincerely,

Gloria Pickar
Dean of Open Campus
Seminole Community College

P.S. A number of people have requested that they receive the results when available. I hope to have them ready in July, 1996.

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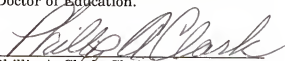
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Gloria Denise Pickar was born in Honolulu, Hawaii, in 1946. She attended the University of Florida, where she received a Bachelor of Science in Nursing degree as the most outstanding nursing graduate in 1968, and a Master of Education degree in nursing education as a Kellogg Fellow in 1973. Her clinical specialization was mental health.

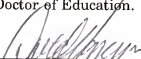
Mrs. Pickar was a nursing faculty member at Valencia Community College and Florida Southern College from 1973 to 1980. She was recruited to Seminole Community College and opened the associate degree nursing program, as the first program manager. During 1985 and 1986, Mrs. Pickar owned and operated a community-based practice as a personal and corporate wellness counselor and consultant. She returned to Seminole Community College in 1986, as the Director for health, business, and public service programs. She was appointed the college's first Dean of Open Campus in 1988. As the dean, Mrs. Pickar is responsible for adult education, continuing education, and business and industry training.

While Mrs. Pickar completed her dissertation, she continued to maintain full-time roles as wife, mother, and college dean for a large instructional division. During this time she also completed the manuscript for the 5th edition of her popular nursing textbook, Dosage Calculations, published in 1996 by Delmar Publishers, a division of International Thomson Publishing Inc., New York.


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Phillip A. Clark, Chair
Professor of Educational Leadership


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


David S. Honeyman
Professor of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Barbara J. Keener
Lecturer of Educational Leadership

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Sheila K. Dickison
Associate Professor of Classics

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

August 1996


Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School